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BULLETIN OF THE

Pan American Union



A COVERED WAGON IN THE CHACO

JANUARY

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1945

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BULLETIN OF THE

Pan American
Union

VOLUME LXXIX

JANUARY-DECEMBER 1945

PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 54 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

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The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs

are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 120,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.

Jan. 21, 1946



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION



HEITOR VILLA-LOBOS

A notable concert of works of this famous Brazilian composer was performed by the Janssen Symphony Orchestra in Los Angeles on November 26, 1944, Villa-Lobos himself conducting.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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JANUARY 1945

Villa-Lobos

ANDRADE MURICY

BRAZIL, an immense country which is still only beginning to be cleared, has a mysterious complex of races which has not seemed destined to merge. The result is a psyche disconcerting because of its changeability, variety, and many nuances. Brazil shows a powerful instinctivity because of its nearness to childhood. Heitor Villa-Lobos is the greatest pioneer in exploring this multiiform and nonconforming soul, and he is also a true expression of it.

He is a necessary expression. Aboriginal, Iberian and African contributions penetrated the racial mass directly without resistance of any kind. They set their mark on the physical, moral, and intellectual make-up of the young race in extremely variable and totally unpredictable proportions.

The earliest Brazilian music of which we have record is to be found in the *autos*, a kind of mystery play in the medieval manner,

Somewhat abridged from the original Portuguese, which will appear in "Heitor Villa-Lobos: Catalogue of His Works," to be published by the Music Division of the Pan American Union.

written by Jesuits in the first decades of the 16th century soon after the Discovery to convert and educate the Indians. Father Joseph Anchieta, poet, dramatist, and musician, but above all apostle, is the greatest figure in this early period. In his productions, designed to be understood by primitive peoples, Gregorian elements were fused with those of indigenous folklore.

Three centuries later no trace of these apparently remained in our music. The African influence had replaced the influence of the Indians, preserved from slavery by the stout defense of the Jesuits and removed from the scene by the systematic persecution of the settlers, who obliged them to retreat deeper and deeper into the wilds. Music at the beginning of the 19th century was almost entirely of Iberian origin: songs and singing games from Portugal and dramatic dances in the Mediterranean tradition. There were also, however, *lundús* of African origin and story-telling dances strongly influenced by the Negro.

It was at this time that music began to be cultivated as one of the fine arts and to acquire influence in Brazilian life. Music was taught even at the Real Fazenda de Santa Cruz, where Negro children were educated. The first important figure in Brazilian music was Father José Maurício Nunes Garcia (1767-1830), who was trained in the tradition of Haydn and Mozart. A disciple of his, Francisco Manoel da Silva, author of the Brazilian national hymn, founded the first real Conservatory of Music (1841), which was succeeded in the early days of the republic (January 12, 1890) by the present School of Music, part of the University of Brazil.

There was considerable organized music activity in Brazil before the end of the 19th century. America witnessed the appearance in our country of a famous operatic composer, Antonio Carlos Gomes (1836-1896), a successful disciple of Verdi. His triumph with *Il Guarany* gave his native land the feeling that it was occupying a place in the sun as far as the world's music was concerned. After Carlos Gomes came Alexandre Levy, Leopoldo Miguez, Henrique Oswald, Alberto Nepomuceno, and Francisco Braga, who directed music into definitely European channels. Schumann, Wagner, Massenet, Debussy, and Ravel strongly influenced Brazilian musical life at that time. It culminated in the exquisite refinement of Henrique Oswald, the most perfect composer Brazil had yet produced.

Henrique Oswald's work and Miguez' too were completely without Brazilian ethnical character. It was Brazilio Itiberê who wrote the first work at all concerned with folklore: the rhapsody *Sertaneja*. Alexandre Levy, a more clear-cut writer, produced in his *Samba* for a large orchestra the pattern of a genre which has had numerous followers: a typical Brazilian dance harmonized in European style and written according to academic

canons. Alberto Nepomuceno (1864-1920) went farther. In addition to his compositions influenced by Massenet or Wagner he wrote music similar to Levy's, for example *Suite Brasileira* and the prelude to *O Garatuja*, but his songs showed a deeper penetration into the national character. Indeed some of them were a real revelation. They had a certain indefinable racial individuality, something "different," that impressed the next generation and were a happy augury of musical tendencies.

Then Heitor Villa-Lobos appeared.

His father, Raul Villa-Lobos, the author of some thirty didactic and historical works, gave Heitor cello lessons. The child was curious about the piano, although his mother, who wanted to see him a good cellist, was opposed to his attempting to play a second instrument. While the cornet and the clarinet, which he puffed at from time to time, satisfied his desire for variety, it was the piano that was his real passion. It seemed to him the richest instrument, it dominated and took possession of him. Now the erstwhile child is able to explain why he felt so. The piano is polyphonic, the cello, homophonic. The latter did not satisfy his complex impulses.

In those days he was living in a part of Rio de Janeiro that was still almost rural. Farm work was still carried on in the neighborhood and the laborers at the end of their daily task used to begin a *chôro*. This is a word that Villa-Lobos has made known to the world. (The name *chôro* that he gives to certain works implies in the composer's mind a certain "form" which would be characteristic of Brazilian music.)

Even before this time he had passed some holidays on the fazenda of Colonel Agostinho in Cataguazes, and spent a long time at Bicas in Minas Gerais, that state where *cateretês* and *jongos* are danced at every turn.

His beloved guitar (much later, in Paris, he wrote his *Guitar Studies* for the great Segovia and also a concerto for the guitar and chamber orchestra) opened another circle to him. When he was fifteen and still tied to his compulsory cello practise, he was being taken by his humble guitar-playing friends to the great figures in the Bohemia of the *serestas*, many of whom were professional musicians who only there found the joy of life. A *seresta* is, one might say, a Brazilian serenade, but freer and more Bohemian.

The child of a learned father, a well-known professor and musical amateur, was turning out to be good for nothing. What company he kept! The notorious Cadete, a famous song-writer and *seresteiro*, an ex-soldier and convicted criminal; Quincas Laranjeira, a tremendous guitar player in *chôros*; Olympio Bezerra, another *seresteiro* more or less like Cadete; and young Artidoro da Costa, a student in the military school—where, the story goes, he spent 14 years—likewise a daring *seresteiro*.

The *enfant terrible* (the man of today gives a clue to the child and the adolescent) was reveling in the great musical orgy in which the music of Rio de Janeiro was assuming a definite character and crystallizing preparatory to reaching a climax in Ernesto Nazareth.

Villa-Lobos, a lively and difficult youth, overflowing with spontaneous musicality, interested the creators, so to speak, of folklore. Before he was twenty years old, he was already the friend of Pedro de Alcântara, a prolific composer of popular music; of Calut; of the celebrated Irineu; of Colonel Gasparino, a retired officer and *seresteiro*. But chiefly his associates were the outstanding figures: the admirable Anacleto de Medeiros; Eduardo das Neves, a circus singer and composer (I passed my youth drumming his Hymn to Santos Du-

mont), a facile but charming musician whom Villa-Lobos, better instructed, taught to give up the eternal tonic-dominant, dominant-tonic; and finally, Catulo Cearense, the only survivor of that significant generation, an excellent singer and song-writer, to whom Villa-Lobos years later paid the tribute of repeating a marvelous little march in his monumental *Chôros No. 10*; and the celebrated Ernesto Nazareth, the most important creator of popular music in Brazil, whose inspired tangos bordered on great art. Villa-Lobos, always an ardent admirer of Nazareth, quoted the splendid rushing theme of *Turuna* in his *Chôros No. 8*.

Only one who witnessed the passing of that epoch can rightly value the contact with celebrity that so exalted the young Villa-Lobos. Popular music flourished then with complete spontaneity. It sprang up naturally. It was not subject to publishers, to directors of broadcasting stations, or to the makers of phonograph records. These gentlemen, as has been abundantly proved, thought mistakenly that all originality frightens the public, and thus repressed the spontaneous manifestation of the creative spirit and flattened it into the banality of a standard type.

Villa-Lobos, listening somewhat absent-mindedly with one ear to classical music, absorbed with the other the inflections, the rhythms, the coloring, that were the fundamentals of the popular style.

The bass bugle and saxophone were taking up his attention when at the age of 19 he set out for Espírito Santo, Bahia, and Pernambuco. Bahia was the home of the famous Canhoto, a Negro guitarist who was enormously popular. The fetichistic rites in Bahia revealed to Villa-Lobos another world of our native music, a world which became so significant to him that he took from it his three *Dansas Africanas*, his first important work. This environment led him on

to Pernambuco, which seemed already familiar. There the flutist Macedo dominated popular music, as Ernani Amorim and the oboist Paulo Dias still bear witness in Rio. It was, however, on the occasion of Villa-Lobos' second trip to the north when he was 21 years old and went as far as Manaus that he became acquainted with the greatest *macumbeiro*¹ of whom I have heard: Romeu Donizetti, of Italian extraction, a notable *chôro* performer, who played the saxophone and piano. Villa-Lobos returned to Rio overland with Donizetti, staying a whole year in Minas Gerais.

On his arrival he entered the National Institute of Music to study under the capable Federico do Nascimento. Immediately his rebellion at ordinary procedure was manifest. Destined to establish new orientations in music, he could not make profitable contacts even with that great master. He turned to Agnello França, a professor who seemed less severe, but for the same reason he did not benefit greatly. Finally he asked the famous Francisco Braga for advice. This he did not repudiate, but he always made the reservation that he could jump the rails if it suited him.

What did Villa-Lobos compose in those days? Light and inconsequential things: waltzes, schottishes, and so on; many unpretentious trifles which are lost. Some of them were published, but under pseudonyms.

From 1911 to 1912 he lived in Paraná, between Paranaguá and Curitiba, where he played the cello in orchestras, after giving concerts on that instrument in Curitiba. Then he went to Pôrto Alegre and Pelotas on a concert tour. Returning from this trip, he composed his first piece of worthwhile music of a Brazilian character: a *Suite Seretaneja*, variations on northern themes for an orchestra. This was played in the Clube de São Cristóvão, Rio de Janeiro, by a group

of amateurs conducted by Jeronimo Silva.

Until then the pressure of his environment had not permitted him to devote himself to the composition of "Brazilian" music. This was forbidden by good taste, a refined education, and artificial standards of culture. Nothing was expected of Brazilian popular music, a field considered sterile and low. No one wished to descend to the treatment of themes derived from street urchins, thugs, or rustics, or from other like sources. Only Alberto Nepomuceno detected the possibilities in the jungle of Brazilian music; hence his beautiful songs. They were garbed, however, in European dress. He was afraid of the rude, exotic surroundings in which such melodies lived, and therefore decked out in French finery, à la Massenet, the delightful themes of his *Suite Brasileira*, while Wagner provided the frame for his overture to *Garatuja*.

At first Villa-Lobos, who later had so many young and notable followers like Gallet, Lorenzo Fernández, and Camargo Guarnieri, found the stimulus of understanding only in Ernesto Nazareth among musicians, and in such intellectuals as Mário de Andrade, Nestor Victor, the author of this article, Ronald de Carvalho, Renato Almeida, Itiberê da Cunha, Brasílio Itiberê, and others. By this time Villa-Lobos had, however, found himself. Intuitively he was already conscious of having mastered his art in accordance with the principles of his own esthetic code.

At length Villa-Lobos arrived at the critical and decisive epoch in his life when the necessity of asserting himself coincided with the need for defining the music of his race. He spent the years from 1912 to 1922 in seeking an expression for that music, an expression which should not separate it from its sources but which should be a transfiguration, a sublimation, of the normal and spontaneous musical feeling of the Brazilian.

¹ A leader in fetishistic rites.

Villa-Lobos is passionately fond of the common people. He has expressed their Brazilian inwardness in every form from the violent complexity of the *Nonetto*, *Rude-poema*, and *Chôros Nos. 2, 8, 10 and Bis*, to the heroic simplicity of *P'ra Frente, ó Brasil*, the *Canto do Pagé*, and the hundreds of choruses so irritating to those who decry any feeling of patriotism.

An impulsive man of violent temperament, Villa-Lobos saw before himself an enormously difficult task, but he had one guide, which in the course of time proved to be entirely reliable. Some call it instinct, others intuition or his strong nature, which is often capable, as the proverb says of God, of writing straight in crooked lines. Soon he felt that his preparation had been providential. The world was moving into a new musical climate, and rising on the horizon was the sign of nationalism.

There was reserved for the present century the paradox of witnessing on one side the phenomena of the increasing universality of the pattern of life throughout the world and the shortening of distance by mechanical means, and on the other side a growing love for the picturesque, which was perishing under the blows of standardization, and an insatiable interest in folklore, in various racial strains.

Villa-Lobos' experience went on growing, as we have seen, without any preconceived plan, in the midst of a diverting Bohemianism, in the full joy of living. If he felt like composing an oratorio immediately after a *seresta*, it was only the result of his complex nature, contradictory and illogical like the nature of Brazil and, like it also, irrepressibly vital.

It would be very convenient for the critic and for the historian if Villa-Lobos' work had developed in a measured and balanced way, but his production was not cast in a definite mold, clearly outlined and harmo-

nious in form. What Villa-Lobos did try to express was the Brazilian nebula with all its vagueness, but also with the power to persist and strengthen. The Brazilian soul is an inchoate world where moments of pure sensuous delight and the astringent savor of our tropical fruits alternate or mingle with surges of primitive barbarism.

As a representative of this primitive instability, Villa-Lobos could not be simple although refined like the academic and cosmopolitan Henrique Oswald; nor could he be smooth, like the poet-musician Alberto Nepomuceno. Two roads were open to him: the first, to compose popular music, the strength and freshness of which skillfully used would suffice to give a national cast to his writing; the other, a free and spontaneous *mise-en-oeuvre*, in which he would avoid only the conventional and stereotyped.

Villa-Lobos, as his work bears witness, did not choose, nor could he choose. All paths attracted him, since all led to the same intoxicating Life. Tracks through the deepest forest opened as wide as a highway before that powerful pioneer. Amazingly, he travelled all routes at once, and the result was a panorama in which synthesis follows analysis, and even exposition or description, with the same naturalness if not with the same effectiveness.

In this panorama, the most ample and rich in American music, there are passages perfect in form and others of the utmost irregularity. More frequent are passages of frank but seductive *devenir*, of a fleeting charm like that of a child or adolescent.

Villa-Lobos began by utilizing as sources the folklore that is so abundant. This suggested to him color, sentiment, design, and rhythm. It brought him close to our true spiritual climate, to the atmosphere which engenders our definitive expression. Even now Villa-Lobos collects and studies that

valuable raw material, but today he does it for the sake of its usefulness and for an educational purpose. His extensive *Guia Prático* includes almost 200 popular Brazilian melodies of every origin, expertly harmonized, delicately, subtly, or boldly, but almost always with a sense of propriety, devoid of any other intention than that of preserving the fine flower of Brazilian musical genius.

The sixteen *Cirandas*, based on traditional folk melodies, were his first compositions to be widely known. They showed a definite change in conception, which had become personal. Every page was an original work with an unmistakable character. The popular melody entered subjectively, as if it were a natural element, a background. It was an allusion, not a theme. One is surprised to perceive that spiritualization of the composer's country which Vuillermoz found in de Falla's *Fantasia Poética*. Villa-Lobos does not *stylize* a popular melody; he *distorts* it. He uses it as if it were general property or *res nullius*; he does as he likes with it. He is not a folklorist, but a creative artist inspired by folklore. Villa-Lobos, it should be noted, never reproduces directly. His imperious and highly individual temperament does not permit it. His work always bears the imprint of his own strong nature. He raises Brazilian music to universality. The music of others may be "Brazilian," but only Brazilian.

In *Chôros Nos. 8 and 10*, *Rudepoema*, and the *Momoprecoce* an irresistible transforming force is evident. They show an extreme but not cerebral subjectivity. Sensory elements are continually brought in: allusions to nature are frequent, but Villa-Lobos does not shun onomatopoeia. When he describes something, however, he does not do it by mere imitation. With him everything takes on the character of that state of the soul which Amiel felt in the

view spread out before him.

It is very difficult to play Villa-Lobos' compositions. An apprenticeship to the usual repertory does not prepare an artist to express this composer's meaning.

His technique of piano composition is extremely individualistic. It does not adhere to any usual academic standards; in every composition there is something newly created, fresh and direct. Therefore Villa-Lobos' work belongs to the great stream of the Baroque because of its irregularity and anti-classicism.

But there is no doubt that the work of Villa-Lobos has evolved towards that luminous essentiality which characterizes the classic and is the best guarantee of survival. His *Bachianas Brasileiras* are triumphant examples of this admirable simplification and the little poems of the *Guia Prático*, to use the modest and unrevealing name given them by their author, benefited from the generous wealth of the composer's power of expression, for many times we find him sketching in a whole picture with a few discreet touches of color.

The most important factor in the interpretation of Villa-Lobos is an understanding of his individual *technique* of composition, which makes excellent use of the resources of the piano, although sometimes doing them violence. This is likewise the case with many moderns, for instance Stravinsky.

Another factor is the understanding of his imperious and capricious rhythm. In Villa-Lobos' work nothing is of more importance than the sense of rhythm. Almost always his rhythmical unit includes the germ characterizing the whole composition. Often this rhythmic unit represents the deepest significance of the work. This is the case in *Xô-xô, Passarinho*, for example. Keeping the *unit of movement* is frequently requisite for expressing the true thought of the composer.

Indeed Villa-Lobos' rhythm is what con-

ditions the esthetic value of his compositions. This is the reason why it is so difficult for the amateur and even for the great majority of academically trained musicians to interpret them. In general Brazilian popular musicians are endowed with a gift for unusual rhythms, but those in the academic world seem to have little or no ability of this kind, especially when it is a question of typical Brazilian rhythms.

The third vital factor in the interpretation of Villa-Lobos' compositions is his power of penetrating characterization. Villa-Lobos is a great painter of character, especially in his short pieces. Even when he seems to set out merely to describe, he is characterizing, distorting, or stamping the music with his inimitable individuality. In this sense too he is an anti-classicist, because his work cannot serve as a direct model and his thought process, so changeable, diversified, and fruitful, cannot become a pattern for everyone. Every time that Villa-Lobos hits the mark with a good characterization the result is a marvelous but inimitable composition. It is always a fortunate find and never the result of rules or experience.

His rhythm is capricious and overflowing; staccato cracklings in the bass, sinuous suggestions of interlaced or successive rhythms; now an inflexible, authoritarian, insistent pace, and now a simple sketchy rhythmical accompaniment that seems to have been put in absent-mindedly.

Villa-Lobos has tried to keep in art music the characteristic unconcern of the Brazilian popular musicians with intonation. In groups especially they flat a quarter of a tone; this is the origin of the spontaneous dissonance in his music. Villa-Lobos' occasional atonality comes from this and not from the teachings of Schönberg. His rhythmic vagueness reflects an essential need for changing the pattern without always forsaking the unity of movement. The dis-

sonant instability of the harmony corresponds to the essential freedom of the melody.

All this apparent aloofness from esthetic standards arises from a definite phenomenon: the variability of our racial psyche. Villa-Lobos arrives at atonality, at pluritonicity, because of a simple ethnical imperative and not because of a servile adherence to the modern. From the same source came his "guitarist" counterpoint, and likewise his certainty of not falling into a mere *pastiche* when he began to write his *Bachianas Brasileiras*, a tribute to Johann Sebastian Bach, in which the method of expression, frequently in the orthodox style of Bach, does not hamper an unmistakable expression of Brazilian feeling.

The eminent pianist Artur Rubinstein became the sponsor of Villa-Lobos' fame. This extraordinary virtuoso told in an article published in the Polish review *Muzika* how he became acquainted with Villa-Lobos. He heard one of the Brazilian's compositions in a motion picture theater where Villa-Lobos was playing in the orchestra. He sought out the musician, who did not seem to believe in his interest. Nevertheless, some days later Villa-Lobos, accompanied by a whole orchestra, presented himself at the hotel where Rubinstein was staying; there followed an hour of Villa-Lobos' music and the revelation of a remarkable talent. The enthusiastic Rubinstein managed to interest a Brazilian Maecenas, who sent his young compatriot to Paris.

There he had a great success. Paul le Fleur, Florent-Schmitt, Henri Prunières, and still others commented on his appearance with lively interest. Florent-Schmitt voiced the predominant impression when he wrote that Villa-Lobos could leave no one indifferent, that he laid hold of one, that his music was like the passing of a great savage force, barbarous but powerful.

An American tribute appeared about the same time (*The League of Composers Review*, New York, January 1925), in a fervid article by Irving Schwerké.

Fourteen years later Olin Downes was writing in *The New York Times*, May 14, 1939: "Here, whatever he does, is a composer of genius, in his spirit fearless, with that to say which is his own, and hence significant of natural art."

Apobos of *Chôros*, No. 10, the same critic said: "We come to this Chorus No. 10, for full chorus and orchestra. It is a perfect beauty, and fascinating in its color, native eloquence and evocative power. . . . It vividly communicates the sensation of something tropical, natural, impassioned, and 10,000 miles from a modern or urban civilization. . . . To this fundamental naïveté and spontaneousness in the present instances may be added an admirable technical address, and a form consummately adapted to the expressive purpose."

The former pioneer is today the young patriarch of Brazilian music and also the leading music educator in Brazil. In 1929 he created the Division of Musical and Artistic Education for the city of Rio de Janeiro and by means of this Division has given an unprecedented impulse to choral singing in the schools. This is widening the horizon of music in Brazil, since it is preparing the younger generations for a better understanding of music.

Notwithstanding this intense activity Villa-Lobos continues to compose. His last great success in Brazil came from the performance of his *Bachianas Brasileiras*. The first suite, written for eight cellos, shows a remarkable skill in instrumentation. It is a real treasure trove. That Villa-Lobos is a cellist is not sufficient to explain this success. It comes from his experience in instrumentation (few composers in the world have written with the abundance and variety that

Villa-Lobos has shown), and from his wonderful instinct, sometimes disconcerting, sometimes truculent, but always virile. The eight cellos sound like an orchestra with a strong and varied timbre. They do not seem like a chamber octet, but like a full symphony orchestra. The symphonic resources are used with convincing assurance and daring. The suite opens with a magnificent *Embolada*.² This part is irresistibly powerful. Fiery chords, a sublimated guitar effect, underline a broad clear melody that seems to sing with a contagious lyric quality. The lively episodic commentaries that are interspersed are carried along in the bright current of the restless *Embolada*. Other songs spring from the closely woven and singularly ingratiating music, which goes on, always with the loquacity of the *Embolada*, until at the end it returns to the first robust and imperious theme. This is one of the most beautiful achievements in the field of characteristic Brazilian music, here translated to a high plane of art, freed from the bonds of literalness to which it is almost always chained, and made the servant of folklore.

The second part, the *Modinha*,³ I believe is destined to world fame; it has a sweetness and intensity seldom achieved by Brazilian music. The *Modinha* sings passionately with a nobility, a measured power that cannot be mistaken: these are the certain signs of a masterpiece. It is more general in tone, more impersonal, than the inspired *Embolada*.

The final section is a brief fugue, *Conversa*, built freely on a theme having the true savor of Rio de Janeiro and discreetly syncopated. What would appear to be the inevitable monochrome of the eight cellos has been avoided with skillful devices. In the recording of this fugue its whole structure

² A type of song from northeastern Brazil.

³ A kind of Brazilian popular song, often sentimental or sad.

is clearly seen, an unusual success in records of strictly polyphonic works.

The *Bachianas Brasileiras No. 5* for voice and cello ensemble is a natural complement of No. 1. This composition, one of the most unusual that I have heard, seems to me admirably devised. Against a complex and constant accompaniment the voice rises with a majestic serenity, with an intoxicating lyric quality. It might be thought a phrase from one of Bach's cantatas, but the melodic undulation takes insidious ways tropical in feeling. The melody sings as in a *chôro*. It is indeed an expressive *chôro*, a lofty flight of the Brazilian soul. Beginning with the first allusion to Bach the universal, the inspiration of the Brazilian composer humbly carried him on to a *modinha*, the most Brazilian of *modinhas*, and we hear in a descending chromatic progression the expression of the purest and most poignant longing, which drops by degrees of heartfelt emotion to a

mere sigh. The impressive Bach-Brazilian melody returns faintly like an echo to close the movement.

The second series includes an admirable aria (*Canto da Minha Terra*) which equals that in the first part. It follows a prelude, a long singing movement played by the lower instruments and including a curious barbaric interlude, a brief allusion to African magic. Its extraordinary construction contrasts sharply with the rest of the composition.

At present a necessary evolution is leading Villa-Lobos in search of the essential in music. He is always impetuous, always robust, always that "great force," simple but grand. *As Três Marias* and many pages of the beautiful *Guia Prático* prove this abundantly.

In Villa-Lobos' enormous production the most important works are not always the longest or those of the most serious nature. I must mention some of his compositions which I personally prefer or which have had the greatest critical acclaim. Among these are the following: for piano, *Alegria na Horta*, a lively composition of which there is also an orchestral version; *Prole do Bebê No. 1*, made famous by Artur Schnabel, who recorded some numbers; the *Lenda do Caboclo*, a delightful evocation of the musical atmosphere of the Brazilian back country; the wonderful series of the sixteen *Cirandas*, among the most charming, colorful, and sparkling pages in modern piano music (the great Spanish pianist, Tomás Terán, is their best interpreter); the two beautiful *Saudades das Selvas Brasileiras*; the crystalline and delicate *As Três Marias*; the *Ciclo Brasileiro*, in which the *Impressões Seresteiras* and the *Dansa do Índio Branco* stand out because of their spontaneity and typical atmosphere; and many pieces from the *Guia Prático*. The two most important groups of Villa-Lobos' works are the *Serestas* and the *Chôros*.



VILLA-LOBOS CONDUCTING

Villa-Lobos' *seresta* is different from the popular Brazilian *seresta*; it is his Brazilian lied. The name is original and felicitous. Villa-Lobos chose it by a process of extension that is habitual to him, as in the case of the *Chôros* and the *Cirandas*. The *Ciranda* is a certain singing game, a very popular one: *Ciranda, cirandinha, vamos todos cirandar*. Villa-Lobos gave the name *Cirandas* to a series of pieces that take as a starting point other popular songs, some for singing games and others not. His *Serestas* form the most noteworthy group of Brazilian songs since those by Nepomuceno. *Anjo da Guarda, Saudades de Minha Vida, Canção do Carreiro, Redondilha* are admirable compositions expressed in a complex idiom, showing a never-failing creative ability and a highly individual invention.

As for the *Chôros*, Villa-Lobos has produced a number of works varied in construction and content, sometimes approaching the popular type of composition called *chôro* but not bound by it. For Villa-Lobos the *Chôros* are the backbone of his work and taken together his masterpiece. They were written in his full maturity, between 1920 and 1929. Notwithstanding the spontaneity in the composition of each one, there is clearly evident in the series a structural idea shown in a curious preoccupation with an ever-increasing complexity. *No. 1* is written for the guitar; *No. 2* for flute and clarinet; *No. 3* for men's chorus and chamber orchestra; *No. 4* for three cornets and a trombone; *No. 5* for piano; *No. 6* for orchestra; *No. 7* for string orchestra; *No. 8* for concert orchestra with 2 pianos; *No. 9* for concert orchestra; *No. 10* for mixed chorus and orchestra; *No. 11* for piano and orchestra; *No. 12* for full orchestra; *No. 13* for orches-

tra and band; *No. 14* for orchestra, band, and choruses. The series is completed by an *Introdução aos Chôros* for orchestra, and a *Chôro Bis* for violin and cello. It will be seen that from a composition in which the tenuous voice of the guitar takes the solo part Villa-Lobos passed to one for chorus and orchestra and another for chorus, orchestra, and band.

The variety and richness of esthetic elements in Villa-Lobos' work deserve a detailed study for proper critical appreciation. Nevertheless I believe it would suffice to analyze a small number of compositions in order to isolate among the various elements those which are really most individual, show authentic originality, and have an unmistakable personality in the world of music.

This first choice, perhaps arbitrary and certainly insufficient, is like the pedestal for a statue, for the real monument. It is formed in my opinion by the following compositions: the 12 pieces for voice and piano entitled *Serestas*; the *Bachianas Brasileiras No. 1*, for eight cellos; the *Chôros No. 5 (Alma Brasileira)*, for piano; *No. 8*, for two pianos and orchestra, and *No. 10*, for chorus and orchestra; the *Ciranda Xô-xô, Passarinho*, for piano; the symphonic poems *Uirapurú* and *Amazonas*; *Rudepoema* for piano, and also the orchestral version; in all, twenty chief works.

In these Villa-Lobos shows to the world a distinct personality, outstanding, new, non-conforming, and strong, and at the same time he offers the music of his race and of his country.

Some of Villa-Lobos' piano music may be purchased from the Associated Music Publishers, 25 West 45th Street, New York, and some larger scores may be obtained from the same firm on rental.—EDITOR.

The Second Pan American Consultation on Geography and Cartography

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THE Second Pan American Consultation on Geography and Cartography took place in Rio de Janeiro, August 14 to September 2, 1944. This meeting, the second of its kind, was of far-reaching importance to the progress of mapping in the Americas. The First Consultation had been held in Washington, September 29 to October 14, 1943. The American Geographical Society acted as host for the United States, and the Commission on Cartography of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History acted as joint sponsor, and organized the Consultation. Broad lines for the program of mapping improvement in the Hemisphere were drawn. The First Consultation was attended by technical representatives from the countries of North and South America. In the Second, all of the American nations, with the exception of El Salvador, Haiti and Nicaragua, were represented. The Brazilian Government joined the Pan American Institute in sponsoring the Second Consultation, and the general program outlined in the First Consultation was further refined, and specific recommendations as to immediate and future procedure were made.

The nations of the American Hemisphere have, for the most part, always been conscious of the need for more and better map information. The need for maps of certain classes, notably aeronautical charts, has been critical since the beginning of the Second

World War. For while the excellent maps compiled by the American Geographical Society were fortunately complete and available for most of Latin America at the beginning of the war, the need of charts for air transport and related purposes made it necessary to fly over and photograph large portions of the Southern Hemisphere. Further, aeronautical charts prepared in some South American localities by the Germans before the war were found to be not only inaccurate, but apparently purposely so.

The lack of map information in some areas, and the unreliability of the information in others, called for a tremendous effort in the production of aeronautical charts. The job was undertaken by the United States Air Forces, in cooperation with the other American nations concerned. The series of aeronautical charts which resulted was prepared in a remarkably short period of time. Furthermore, the charts are of such a high standard that they constitute a milestone, in the geographic progress not only of the Hemisphere, but of the entire planet.

But mapping interest and accomplishment in the Americas is by no means a recent phenomenon. On the contrary, it dates far back in history. The voyages of Columbus and his successors produced maps of the lands they touched, and into which they and the conquistadors speedily entered. During this, the Colonial Period, the ac-

cumulation of information gained by these explorations gradually built up, at least in outline, maps of a large portion of the Hemisphere. In what has been called the Reconnaissance Period, the work of von Humboldt and other European geographers and scientists made further addition to this accumulating map information. With the gaining of independence, each of the American nations embarked, in greater or lesser degree, upon national programs of surveying and mapping of its own territories. Preceding these three periods of American mapping development there was mapping accomplishment of a more primitive kind, in the pre-Columbian American cultures. Primitive man has always drawn maps, and these progressed in America from rude outlines and pictures traced in stone to the maps on parchment and cloth, typified by those which the Aztecs painted on such material, and which were copied, with their original symbols supplemented by Spanish language notations, even after the Conquest.

To the three post-Columbian stages in American map progress we may now add a fourth. It is evident that the colonial, reconnaissance, and national periods have been followed by an international period, in which map affairs must be considered on a cooperative basis by all the nations of this hemisphere. Furthermore, it is now perfectly obvious that American interest in maps does not stop with the hemisphere. In many respects it is necessarily world-wide.

In the Second Consultation, the technical sessions were organized around five principal discussion topics. These were: geodesy and astronomy; aeronautical charts; topography and aerophotogrammetry; hydrography; and cartography and geography. Two half-day sessions were devoted to each topic. All sessions were conducted as open meetings of the Commission on Cartography. They were attended by members of the

Commission and by other technical delegates and observers from the participating nations, and by delegates and technical observers from Brazil. Discussion leaders for each topic were selected from the Brazilian delegation, and the writer, as Chairman of the Commission on Cartography, acted as general chairman for all discussion sessions.

Credit for the organization of the Consultation, and for the efficient manner in which its business was carried out, goes to the officers and staff of Brazil's National Council on Geography, of which Ambassador José Carlos de Macedo Soares is President, and Dr. Christovam Leite de Castro is Secretary General. The Council also arranged an Exposition of maps, charts and survey data produced by the various American nations represented, which was an outstanding feature of the Consultation. An indication of the size and extent of the Exposition may be obtained from the fact that one entire floor of the new Serrador Building was needed to display the maps and photographs brought by the various delegations.

The delegates were given the opportunity of meeting President Vargas and other officials of the Brazilian Government, and of visiting and inspecting Brazil's various official cartographic agencies. In addition to the National Council on Geography itself, visits were made to the Geological Department of the Ministry of Agriculture, the Hydrographic Service of the Navy, and the Geographic Service of the Army, all in Rio de Janeiro. The delegates were also given the advantage of the trip to São Paulo and the seaport city of Santos, and to two other communities in the São Paulo region, Campinas and Rio Claro. In São Paulo visits were made to the Geographic and Geologic Institute of that State, as well as to the Technological Institute.



Courtesy of Robert H. Randall

PREPARATORY SESSION OF THE SECOND PAN AMERICAN CONSULTATION ON GEOGRAPHY AND CARTOGRAPHY

The delegates are meeting in the hall of the century-old Brazilian Institute of Geography and History.

A most interesting feature of this trip was the visit to Volta Redonda, Brazil's new steel city. Delegates were given the opportunity to see not only the offices and plant of the Companhia Siderúrgica Nacional, but also to inspect the housing and other admirable facilities of the city.

In final plenary session of the Consultation, held at the close of the technical discussion sessions, many resolutions, some very specific in character, were enacted. These resolutions, and the discussions upon which they were based, are now in process of publication by the Brazilian Government in cooperation with the Pan American Institute. Certain of the recommendations contained in these resolutions deserve special mention.

As an indication of the real interest which each of the American nations feels in the

progress of mapping in its own area and in the Hemisphere, a resolution was adopted urging that each nation contribute, in addition to its regular quota payments to the Institute, an additional amount for carrying on the work of the Commission on Cartography. The Institute was also requested repeatedly to serve as the central agency and international supporter of various surveying and mapping activities which its Commission on Cartography has initiated, through the First and Second Consultations and through the work of its traveling secretary, Dr. André C. Simonpietri.

At the First Consultation the Commission was urged by the delegates attending to set up three permanent committees, to be concerned with geodesy, aeronautical charts, and topographic mapping, respectively. The Second Consultation reiterated this request,

and further recommended the establishment of a Committee on Hydrography and a Committee on Cartography and Geography. The purpose of the latter is to study and to promote the mutually profitable relationships between the two fields.

The resolutions relating to *geodesy and astronomy* urged the nations represented to proceed with all possible speed with work of this character, and to connect their systems of triangulation and precise leveling across their borders, so that a continental framework of geodetic surveys may be completed as soon as possible.

In respect to *aeronautical charts*, much interest was visible, as was to be expected. The work of the United States Government was especially commended, and the Consultation went on record as favoring the adoption of the 1:1,000,000 aeronautical chart produced for military purposes on a standard sheet size of 22" x 29", as the standard aeronautical chart for the American Hemisphere.

It is worthy of mention that at the recent International Civil Aviation Conference convened in Chicago November 1, 1944, this chart was adopted as the world standard. The fact that the nations of America, including Canada, had already agreed upon it for the Hemisphere was undoubtedly a factor in this decision.

Topographic mapping was also the center of much interest, since such maps are not only of tremendous value in themselves but form the bases for practically all other maps, such as geologic maps, soil maps, and vegetative cover maps. The airplane that has brought the nations of the Hemisphere into such close relationship has also made possible the aerial photography which so greatly expedites map making. Upon the general basis of geographic knowledge which is furnished by the aeronautical charts, maps of larger scale can be planned. By the use of

the photographs employed in the compilation of the aeronautical charts, and by additional aerial photography where necessary, larger scale topographic maps may be actually constructed. Greatly increased progress in topographic mapping is to be expected. Brazil was one of the first nations to practice photogrammetry, or the art of making maps from photographs, and the rapid progress of map making by this method in Brazil seems assured.

The Brazilian nation has also done splendid work in *hydrographic charting*. Close cooperation with the Hydrographic Office of the United States Navy, and with corresponding offices in the other American nations, has contributed greatly to this. Discussions on hydrographic charts resulted in resolutions which called for the Commission's Committee on Hydrography to proceed along several specific lines. For example, it was urged that all of the information essential to navigation, such as depths and navigation hazards, and notices to mariners, be classified as public information, and speedily disseminated. It was also urged that aerophotogrammetry be used in the preparation of the charts of shore areas, and of off-lying danger zones as well. Taking cognizance of the increased accuracy which modern methods of hydrographic charting have made possible, it was recommended that hydrographic surveys be extended to greater distances from the shore, even to the extent of going beyond the continental shelf.

In recognition of the close relationship of surveying and mapping to geographic science in general, the Consultation urged that the Committee on Cartography and Geography, to be created by the Commission, study the relationships between these fields, and develop methods for improving and extending the service which cartographic science can render to geography. The Con-

sultation also suggested to the Pan American Institute of Geography and History that it create a Commission on Applied Geography, for the purpose of enlarging activities in this field.

The practical results of this Second Consultation are both general and specific. The value of international meetings, in which persons professionally and officially interested in a particular science or field of endeavor can become acquainted with each other, is now well recognized. Acquaintanceships are formed, ideas and information are exchanged, and this not only increases the effectiveness of each for service in his own nation, but advances the technique and enlarges the service it can render internationally.

As the result of acquaintanceships so

formed, actual agreements for international collaboration in the making of aeronautical charts, for example, have been perfected. The habit of neighboring nations' conducting topographic and other surveys at or near their common borders upon a joint cooperative basis is rapidly increasing. Not only are ideas and specific information on technical methods exchanged, but, as the result of these Consultations and of the continuing work of the Institute's Commission on Cartography, technical instruments and equipment of various kinds are being exchanged by and between nations. The value of discussion and agreement in respect to standards of charts and maps for international use in the Hemisphere has already been mentioned in connection with



Courtesy of Robert H. Randall

PAN AMERICAN EXPOSITION OF GEOGRAPHY AND CARTOGRAPHY

The Exposition, a corner of which is here seen, occupied the entire twentieth floor of the new Serrador Building in downtown Rio de Janeiro.

aeronautical charts. The same is true in respect to topographic maps, hydrographic charts, and other basic types of maps.

In view of the prominent part which mapping plays in wartime, it has been possible to hold Consultations on cartography during the war, even with all the limits on transportation which war conditions impose. It is hoped that the Third Consultation may be held approximately one year from the time of the Second. By that time it is expected that the Committees which the Com-

mission is establishing in the five fields mentioned will have so far advanced their work that the discussions of the Third Consultation may be directed toward such matters as techniques, equipment, plans for collaborative action, education and training, and the scientific management of large survey enterprises. By such means the fourth period in the development of American cartography, the period of international co-operation toward the improvement of basic map information, will continue to advance.

Officer Ranks of the Armed Forces of the Western Hemisphere

FRANCIS MILLET ROGERS, Lieutenant Colonel, U. S. M. C. R.

MY SPANISH DICTIONARY lists the word for an army "Major" as *Comandante*. The dictionary is correct . . . for Spain. It also happens to be correct for Cuba. In Costa Rica, however, a "Major" is a *Comandante Mayor*, in Peru a *Sargento Mayor*, in El Salvador a *Capitán Mayor*, elsewhere in Spanish America just plain *Mayor*.

The naval side of the picture is equally complicated. A "Lieutenant," for example, is a *Teniente de Fragata* in Argentina and Ecuador. His acquaintances in Spain, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela know him as a *Teniente de Navío*. Chile and Peru call him a *Teniente Primero*. In the Dominican Republic his title is *Teniente Comandante*.

Spanish is not the only language full of pitfalls for the unsophisticated. A "Lieutenant Commander" in the French navy is a *Capitaine de Corvette*. The Haitian navy prefers *Lieutenant Commandant*. The Portuguese and the Brazilians also like to confuse

us. A *Capitão Tenente* in the Portuguese navy is a "Lieutenant Commander," in the Brazilian a "Lieutenant."

All this anarchy bothered me for several years. I finally could not stand it any longer. I had to do something. The following comparative table of the officer ranks of the armed forces in the western hemisphere is the result.¹

The first two sections, the names of the ranks of the United States and Great Britain respectively, are the key to the system of numbering I have used. The next three sections provide the basis of a comparison with the ranks of France, Portugal and Spain.²

It will be noted that in a few countries

¹ I wish to take this opportunity to thank many acquaintances in the Office of Naval Intelligence for their assistance in preparing this table.

² The sections on the United States, Great Britain, France, Portugal, Spain, and Brazil have been previously printed in articles by the present writer in the "Modern Language Journal," Vol. XXVII, No. 5, May 1943, and No. 8, December 1943.

there is one more rank between "Second Lieutenant" ("Ensign") and "Colonel" ("Captain" in the navy) than is to be found in the United States. The equivalent of "Colonel" ("Captain" in the navy) has been consistently, albeit somewhat arbitrarily, put on the #6 level. As a result there remains one rank below the #1 level. This rank might be thought of as "Junior Second Lieutenant" ("Junior Ensign").

Only the ranks of naval "line" officers have been given, not those of the staff corps, such as medical, supply and construction.

Lastly, the United States equivalent of the "flag" ranks (admirals) of many navies is a matter of some disagreement, due to the fact that in the United States navy a "Rear Admiral" ranks with a "Major General," whereas in many, if not most, other navies the *Contralmirante* ranks with the *General de Brigada*. In general the table is believed to be correct as regards the correspondence between services within a given country, although the correspondence with ranks in the United States armed forces may in some cases be open to discussion.

UNITED STATES

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
11. General of the Army	Fleet Admiral	
10. General	Admiral	
9. Lieutenant General	Vice Admiral	
8. Major General	Rear Admiral	
7. Brigadier General	Commodore	
6. Colonel	Captain	
5. Lieutenant Colonel	Commander	
4. Major	Lieutenant Commander	
3. Captain	Lieutenant	
2. First Lieutenant	Lieutenant, junior grade	
1. Second Lieutenant	Ensign	

GREAT BRITAIN (and also CANADA)

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
11. Field Marshal	Admiral of the Fleet	Marshal of the R. A. F.
10. General	Admiral	Air Chief Marshal
9. Lieutenant General	Vice Admiral	Air Marshal
8. Major General	Rear Admiral	Air Vice Marshal
7. Brigadier	Commodore	Air Commodore
6. Colonel	Captain	Group Captain
5. Lieutenant Colonel	Commander	Wing Commander
4. Major	Lieutenant Commander	Squadron Leader
3. Captain	Lieutenant	Flight Lieutenant
2. Lieutenant	Sub Lieutenant	Flying Officer
1. Second Lieutenant	Midshipman	Pilot Officer

FRANCE

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
11. Maréchal de France		
10. Général d'Armée	Amiral	Général d'Armée Aérienne
9. Général de Corps d'Armée	Vice Amiral d'Escadre	Général de Corps Aérien
8. Général de Division	Vice Amiral	Général de Division Aérienne
7. Général de Brigade	Contre Amiral	Général de Brigade Aérienne
6. Colonel	Capitaine de Vaisseau	Colonel
5. Lieutenant Colonel	Capitaine de Frégate	Lieutenant Colonel

4. Commandant	Capitaine de Corvette	Commandant
3. Capitaine	Lieutenant de Vaisseau	Capitaine
2. Lieutenant	Enseigne de Vaisseau de 1 ^{re} Classe	Lieutenant
1. Sous-lieutenant	Enseigne de Vaisseau de 2 ^{me} Classe	Sous-lieutenant

PORTUGAL

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. Marechal	Almirante	
8. General	Vice Almirante	
7. Brigadeiro	Contra Almirante	
6. Coronel	Capitão de Mar e Guerra	
5. Tenente Coronel	Capitão de Fragata	
4. Major	Capitão Tenente	
3. Capitão	Primeiro Tenente	
2. Tenente	Segundo Tenente	
1. Alferes	Guarda Marinha	

SPAIN

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
10. Capitán General	Capitán General	
9. Teniente General	Almirante	
8. General de División	Vice Almirante	
7. General de Brigada	Contra Almirante	General
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	Coronel
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	Teniente Coronel
4. Comandante	Capitán de Corbeta	Comandante
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío	Capitán
2. Teniente	Alférez de Navío	Teniente
1. Alférez	Alférez de Fragata	Alférez

ARGENTINA

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. Teniente General	Almirante	
8. General de División	Vicealmirante	
7. General de Brigada	Contraalmirante	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	
4. Mayor	Teniente de Navío	
3. Capitán	Teniente de Fragata	
2. Teniente Primero	Alférez de Navío	
1. Teniente	Alférez de Fragata	
Subteniente	Guardiamarina	

BOLIVIA

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
9. Mariscal		
8. General		
7. Teniente General		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán		

2. Teniente
 1. Subteniente

BRAZIL

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
9. Marechal	Almirante	Marechal do Ar
8. General de Divisão	Vice Almirante	Major Brigadeiro do Ar
7. General de Brigada	Contra Almirante	Brigadeiro do Ar
6. Coronel	Capitão de Mar e Guerra	Coronel Aviador
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitão de Fragata	Tenente Coronel Aviador
4. Major	Capitão de Corveta	Major Aviador
3. Capitão	Capitão Tenente	Capitão Aviador
2. Primeiro Tenente	Primeiro Tenente	Primeiro Tenente Aviador
1. Segundo Tenente	Segundo Tenente	Segundo Tenente Aviador

CHILE

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
8. General de División	Vicealmirante	General del Aire
7. General de Brigada	Contraalmirante	Comodoro del Aire
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	Comandante de Grupo
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	Comandante de Escuadrilla
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	Capitán de Bandada
3. Capitán	Teniente Primero	Teniente Primero
2. Teniente Primero	Teniente Segundo	Teniente Segundo
1. Teniente Segundo	Subteniente	Subteniente
Alférez	Guardiamarina	Alférez

COLOMBIA

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
8. General	Almirante	
7. —	Contra-Almirante	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío	
2. Teniente	Subteniente de Navío	
1. Subteniente	Guardiamarina	

COSTA RICA

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
7. General		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Comandante Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

CUBA

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
8. Mayor General		
7. General de Brigada	Comodoro	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	

5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata
4. Comandante	Capitán de Corbeta
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío
2. Primer Teniente	Alférez de Navío
1. Segundo Teniente	Alférez de Fragata

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. Generalísimo		
8. Mayor General		
7. General de Brigada		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán	Teniente Comandante	
2. Primer Teniente	Primer Teniente	
1. Segundo Teniente	Sub-Teniente	

ECUADOR

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
7. General	Almirante	General
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	Coronel
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	Teniente Coronel
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	Mayor
3. Capitán	Teniente de Fragata	Capitán
2. Teniente	Alférez de Navío	Teniente
1. Subteniente	Alférez de Fragata	Subteniente

EL SALVADOR

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
7. General		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Capitán Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

GUATEMALA

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
8. General de División		
7. General de Brigada		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

HAITI

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
6. Colonel	Capitaine de Vaisseau	
5. —	—	

4. Major	Lieutenant Commandant
3. Capitaine	Lieutenant de Vaisseau
2. Premier Lieutenant	Sous-Lieutenant de Vaisseau
1. Sous-Lieutenant	Enseigne de Vaisseau

HONDURAS

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
8. General de División		
7. General de Brigada		
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

MEXICO

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. General de División	Vice Almirante	
8. General de Brigada	Contralmirante	
7. General Brigadier	Comodoro	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	
3. Capitán Primero	Teniente de Navío	
2. Capitán Segundo	Teniente de Fragata	
1. Teniente	Teniente de Corbeta	
Subteniente	Guardiamarina	

NICARAGUA

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
8. General de División		
7. General de Brigada		
6. Coronel		
5. —		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

PANAMA

ARMY	(No Navy)	(No Separate Air Force)
6. Coronel		
5. Teniente Coronel		
4. Mayor		
3. Capitán		
2. Teniente		
1. Subteniente		

PARAGUAY

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. General de Cuerpo de Ejército ^a		
8. General de División	Vice-Almirante	

7. General de Brigada	Contra-Almirante
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío
2. Teniente Primero	Teniente de Fragata
1. Teniente	Teniente de Corbeta
Subteniente	Guardiamarina

PERU

ARMY	NAVY	AIR FORCE
9. Mariscal ⁴		
8. General de División	Vicealmirante	General de División
7. General de Brigada	Contralmirante	General de Brigada
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	Coronel
5. Teniente Coronel ⁵	Capitán de Fragata	Comandante
4. Sargento Mayor ⁶	Capitán de Corbeta	Teniente Comandante
3. Capitán	Teniente Primero	Capitán
2. Teniente	Teniente Segundo	Teniente
1. Subteniente ⁷	Alférez de Fragata	Alférez

URUGUAY

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
8. General de División	Vice Almirante	
7. General	Contralmirante	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío	
2. { Teniente Primero	Alférez de Navío	
{ Teniente Segundo		
1. Alférez	Guardia Marina	

VENEZUELA

ARMY	NAVY	(No Separate Air Force)
9. General en Jefe	Almirante	
8. General de División	Vice-Almirante	
7. General de Brigada	Contra-Almirante	
6. Coronel	Capitán de Navío	
5. Teniente Coronel	Capitán de Fragata	
4. Mayor	Capitán de Corbeta	
3. Capitán	Teniente de Navío	
2. Teniente	Teniente de Fragata	
1. Subteniente	Alférez de Navío	

³ In war-time only.⁴ Honorary rank only.⁵ Called "Comandante" in direct address.⁶ Called "Mayor" in direct address.⁷ Infantry and Engineers only. "Alférez" in the other branches of service.

International Fishing Rodeos in Mexico

CAROLINE A. MUHLENBERG

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

IZAACK WALTON, the articulate angler, would be pleased to know that in two of Mexico's best known towns by the sea, devotees of his favorite sport will soon be contributing again to inter-American friendship as they troll contentedly in the sunlit water. At the "New World Riviera," lovely Acapulco, on the Pacific coast of Mexico, where the waters abound in dolphin, barracuda, tuna, bonito, and record-breaking sailfish, the Second International Sailfish Rodeo will be held in March 1945, and in the same month the Fourth International Tarpon Rodeo will be celebrated at Tampico on the Gulf of Mexico. Fishing contests are nothing new, but the international character of these two makes them unique. In the thrill of keen and sportsmanlike competition, and in the excitement shared following a good catch, a comradeship which overcomes differences in language is bound to develop.

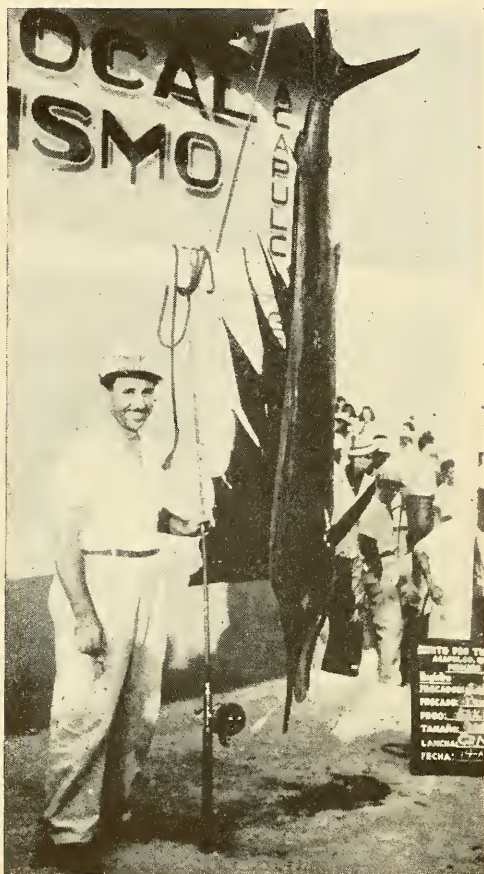
The First International Sailfish Rodeo, sponsored by the Mexican Tourist Association, the Pemex Travel Club, and the Club de Yates, was held at Acapulco in April 1944, and pronounced a great success. It was organized by Leroy H. Dorsey of Chicago, honorary representative in the United States of the Federal Fishing Commission of the Mexican Navy Department, who for his efforts was elected honorary president of both the sailfish and the tarpon tourneys. Fifty-seven contestants, thirty-six from the United States, and twenty-one from Mexico, participated in the Sailfish Rodeo.

The contest was officially opened with a ceremony at which a Commodore of the Mexican Navy and an honor guard presided.

Fishing lasted from eight in the morning until two in the afternoon, after which time catches were brought to the wharf for certification by the official judge. The sailfish were to be caught in a sportsmanlike manner, with a rod and reel, no harpooning or shooting allowed, and no more than one person was allowed to assist the contestant in gaffing the fish. The grand prize, a handsome silver plaque donated by the government and engraved with the name of the winner, went to Juan Muller Contreras of Acapulco, who caught a 112-pound, 9-foot 6-inch sailfish on the third day of the Rodeo, from his boat *El Cóndor*. A special prize was awarded to Mrs. Charles C. Gates of Denver, who caught the largest sailfish with a small tackle. Her catch weighed 77 pounds and measured 8 feet, 9 and 1/2 inches, and was landed with a rod which had a 3-ounce tip and a 6-thread line. Mr. Dorsey caught the largest fish of the Rodeo when he landed a 236-pound marlin, and a fish of world record size was also hooked during the contest, but not boated.

Acapulco is truly a paradise for deep-sea fishermen, whose favorite methods in its waters are trolling, still fishing, and torch fishing in the native style. The giant sting rays and turtles which sometimes appear are harpooned. In one of its fishing clubs, Acapulco still holds trophies representing two world's records—for the largest and the smallest sailfish ever caught. The largest measured eleven feet one inch, and the smallest one and three quarters inches.

Tampico, in the state of Tamaulipas, is also a favorite hunting ground for deep sea



Courtesy of L. H. Dorsey

1943 SAILFISH RODEO

The grand prize at Acapulco was awarded to Juan Muller Contreras for his 9-foot 6-inch, 112-pound sailfish.



Courtesy of L. H. Dorsey

SILVER MARLIN

This marlin, caught by LeRoy H. Dorsey at Acapulco, was 9 feet 3 inches long and weighed 236 pounds.

fishermen. Myriads of game fish, large and small, swarm in the river, the lagoon, and the gulf. Tarpon fishing, acknowledged by anglers as one of the most thrilling phases of their sport, is at its world's best in the Pánuco River, where schools of the fish can frequently be seen. The fishing is best from November to May, but in summer, when rains muddy the river, tarpon are caught in the surf along Miramar. Other fighting Gulf fish which are plentiful are yellow-tail, red snapper, tuna, Spanish mackerel, and barracuda. In certain spots giant turtles cover

the beaches with their eggs every April.

Tampico holds the world's record for tarpon, a 247-pound fish measuring seven feet, five and one-half inches, caught by H. W. Sedgwick in the Pánuco River on March 24, 1938. The trophy, a beautiful challenge cup presented by Emilio Portes Gil, ex-President of Mexico, entered into international competition for the world's record tarpon on the first day of January 1944. It is being kept in the Club de Regatas Corona of Tampico and will remain there until such time as a new world's record, certified by

the International Game Fish Association of the American Museum of Natural History of New York, is established, when it will pass into the possession of the angler's own club. The cup is gold-plated and bears an engraved scene of a tarpon breaking water, the seal of Tampico, and an appropriate inscription. Data about the record catch are inscribed at the base.

The town of Tampico itself is a bustling place where oil derricks tower over palm trees and tiled roofs, and where crowds



Courtesy of L. H. Dorsey

TARPON PRIZE WINNER

Julian T. Crandall of Ashaway, Rhode Island, won the grand prize at the Third International Tampico Tarpon Rodeo last year. The 6-foot, 1-inch fish weighed 115 pounds.

gather in the hot weather to swim at the popular beach of Miramar. Tampico was host to the Third International Tarpon Rodeo, which was held on March 29 to 31, 1944 at Tarpon Bend in the Pánuco River. This event, which was sponsored by the Club de Regatas Corona, attracted 175 contestants, from the United States, Central America, and Mexico. Julian T. Crandall of Ashaway, Rhode Island, was awarded first prize for a tarpon which measured 6 feet one inch, and weighed 115 pounds. His trophy was a handsome silver plate presented by the Governor of the State of Tamaulipas, and inscribed with the winner's name. Second prize went to José Agustín Hernández of Mexico City for a 110-pound tarpon, and third prize to Gonzalo Vigil Palacios of Tampico for a 101-pound fish. Besides the three grand prizes, there were ten daily prizes of various types of fishing equipment donated by concerns in the United States and Mexico. The Club de Regatas Corona presented miniature tarpon pins of solid silver to all contestants. The contest was opened by a ceremony at which various government officials presided and the flags of affiliated sports clubs were raised, and was closed with a typical Mexican fiesta. The daily hours of the contest were from 9 in the morning until 7 in the evening.

For information about the coming Fourth International Tampico Tarpon Rodeo, which will be held March 7-9, 1945, or the Second International Acapulco Sailfish Rodeo, which will take place March 15-17, 1945, the interested reader may write to Señor José J. March, Petróleos Mexicanos, Artículo 123, No. 116, México, D. F. Valuable prizes have been pledged for the forthcoming tournaments. They include trophies from the President of Mexico, General Manuel Ávila Camacho; the Secretary of the Navy, General Heriberto Jara; and the Secretary of Agriculture, Señor Marte R. Gómez.

Notes on

Music in the Americas

CHARLES SEEGER

Chief of the Music Division, Pan American Union

Prize winners in Washington Chamber Music Guild Competition

UNDER the sponsorship of the Washington Chamber Music Guild two \$1,000 prize awards were offered by the Radio Corporation of America through its RCA Victor Division, one for the best string quartet composition from Latin America and the other for the best string quartet composition from the United States and Canada. Camargo Guarnieri of Brazil and Robert Doellner of Hartford, Connecticut were judged the winners. Both winning compositions will



ROBERT DOELLNER

Winner in the United States-Canadian section

be performed by the Chamber Music Guild String Quartet in Washington at one of its regular concerts this season and in Town Hall, New York, on March 19, 1945.

Six other quartets were adjudged of such unusual interest that their composers were given honorable mention. These are Jean Berger, Louis Gesensway and Wallingford Riegger of the United States, and José Ardévol of Cuba, Juan A. García-Estrada of Argentina, and Claudio Santoro of Brazil.

Camargo Guarnieri, the winner of the prize for Latin America, is considered the foremost young composer of Brazil. Born in 1907, he won a first prize of \$750 in 1942 for his violin concerto in a competition sponsored throughout Latin America by Samuel Fels. This was performed at the Pan American Union in April 1944 by the United States Marine Band, Milton Wohl playing the violin part. Several of his orchestral works, *Encantamento*, *Dansa Brasileira*, and *Dansa Selvagem* have been heard in the United States. He has just completed his first symphony.

Senhor Guarnieri toured the eastern part of the United States as pianist and conductor. He also conducted the Boston Symphony Orchestra during its performance of his *Abertura*.

Robert Doellner, born in Manchester, Connecticut on March 25, 1899, is a product of the American schools, having received all his education in the United States. He began the study of harmony with Robert H. Prutting, and studied violin with Leopold

Auer and composition with Cecil Burleigh. He has had works performed by the Rochester Civic Symphony and the Hartford Symphony Orchestra, and recently wrote a setting for the late John Magee's poem *High Flight*, to be sung by tenor voice with piano accompaniment. At the present time Mr. Doellner is teaching composition at the Hartford School of Music.

Out of over 300 manuscripts submitted, twenty reached the final stage. Each of the twenty was performed for the judges before the deciding votes were cast. Each entry remained anonymous throughout the judging period, being identified only by a given number.

Many of the manuscripts came from the Armed Services, several direct from the battle line. Army, Navy, Marine, and Merchant Marine officers encouraged the contest among their men.

The quality and quantity of entries submitted far surpassed expectations. Most of the compositions could be described as "modern," although a great many, especially those from Latin America, were based on the folk themes of their respective countries.

Seventeen of the Latin American countries were well represented. Forty-three States were represented, and also Alaska, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico.

The judges were Claudio Arrau, the well known Chilean pianist; Jascha Heifetz, famous violinist; Mme. Wanda Landowska, harpsichordist; Sir Ernest MacMillan, famous conductor and Dean of the Faculty of Music, University of Toronto; William Primrose, noted violinist; Germaine Tailleferre and Edgar Varese, well known French Composers; and Charles Seeger, Chief of the Music Division of the Pan American Union. Representing the Guild were Marcel Ancher, its founder, Ana del Pulgar de Burke, talented pianist and daughter of a celebrated Spanish portrait painter, and Michel Piastro,



CAMARGO GUARNIERI

Winner in the Latin American section

noted violinist and conductor of the Longines Symphonette.

In addition to deciding the winners, the judges selected other compositions worthy of performance in concert. Mr. Seeger chose a number of entries which he thought would be suitable for presentation at the Pan American Union.

The idea for the contest is wholly attributable to Marcel Ancher, who worked long and arduously to bring about the contest, and was untiring in his efforts to see that all the manuscripts had a fair hearing. The Guild is the first musical organization to hold a hemispheric contest. It is the only Washington musical organization which offers to young artists the opportunity of auditions before a Board composed of prominent musicians, assuring these young artists a fair chance to win a professional engagement on their ability.

Entrants ranged from celebrated composers to untrained musicians. Many governments, including that of the United States, cooperated in promoting the contest in their respective countries.

The following paragraphs give brief biographies of five of the men whose entries received honorable mention:

JOSÉ ARDEVOL is a Spanish-born musician who has lived in Cuba for about ten years. He is a professor at the Conservatory of Music and writes for the newspaper *El Mundo*. He has especially distinguished himself as teacher of the youngest generation of Cuban composers, whose outstanding work has already become known. He is associated with the Grupo de Renovación Musical and is an indefatigable worker in arranging concerts for various visiting American and European musicians. His compositions, though few, show strong grounding in the great European tradition and are highly regarded.

JEAN BERGER, born in 1909, spent his early youth in southwestern Germany, Alsace and Paris, and studied musicology at Heidelberg University, graduating in 1932. Upon completion of his studies he returned to Paris, and until 1939 traveled as a concert accompanist and conductor of his own choral group, Les Compagnons de la Marjolaine. In 1937 he won the first prize at the International Contest for composition in Zurich, Switzerland. In 1939, he was engaged by the Teatro Municipal in Rio de Janeiro for the French Opera Season there. After the outbreak of the war, he remained in South America, traveling extensively through most of its countries. In 1941, he came to the United States, of which he is now a citizen. His concerto based on South American rhythms and written for Larry Adler, the harmonica virtuoso, had its première with the St. Louis Symphony Orchestra in 1942.

JUAN A. GARCÍA-ESTRADA was born in Buenos Aires, Argentina, November 8, 1895. He was a pupil of Jacques Ibert in Paris, where his *Tres Aires Argentinos* for orchestra were performed in 1929. By profession he is a provincial judge. His *Danza* for orchestra is in the Edwin A. Fleisher Collection in The Free Library of Philadelphia. The prize-winning work is his first string quartet.

CLAUDIO SANTORO was born in Manaus, state of Amazonas, Brazil, November 23, 1919. At the age of 13 he received an award from the authorities of his native state and moved to Rio de Janeiro to study music. He entered the Conservatory of Music of the Federal District, where he studied musicology under Dr. Lopes Gonçalves and violin under Professor Edgardo Guerra. He devoted himself chiefly to composition, and studied particularly with Professor Hans-Joachim Koellreutter. His works have been performed in Brazil and abroad.

Claudio Santoro performs as a solo violinist and in chamber ensembles. He plays in the Brazilian Symphonic Orchestra of Rio de Janeiro and writes for the Brazilian review *Música Viva*.

WALLINGFORD RIEGGER was born in Albany, Georgia, in 1885. He studied with Stillman-Kelley, Goetschius, and Hekking at the Institute of Musical Art and later at the Berlin Hochschule für Musik. He conducted opera in Würzburg and Königsberg, and has taught at Drake University, the Institute of Musical Art, and Ithaca Conservatory. In 1921 he won the Paderewski Prize and in 1924 the E. E. Coolidge Prize. He has been a member of the Executive Board of the Pan American Association of Composers and of the American Composers' Alliance. He has composed numerous works for chamber ensembles and for chamber orchestras.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Uruguayan women work for equality of civil rights

The women of Uruguay have requested the Senate, which is working on a plan to grant equality in civil rights to women, to incorporate the following points in the bill:

1. Substitution for the authority and guardianship of the husband with respect to his wife of the obligation of mutual respect and fidelity, the fixing of the conjugal domicile by joint consent of husband and wife, and in general, equality of rights and responsibilities, both husband and wife to be obliged to contribute their property and earnings to the maintenance of the home and children of the marriage.

2. As long as a marriage is in effect, parental authority shall be exercised jointly, both parents having equal rights and duties. Both parents shall administer the property of minor children when the system of joint management of property prevails as well as when husband and wife administer their earnings separately and even when there is separation of property.

In cases where the property of husband and wife is managed by only one of the conjugal partners (whether husband or wife), the management of the property of minor children shall devolve upon the one who administers the common property.

3. A widow or divorcée shall keep parental authority over children of a previous marriage, if she remarries.

4. A married woman may engage in any profession, industry, or trade without the permission of her husband.

5. The legal system of managing the earnings of husband and wife shall be common management, either husband or wife having the right to hand over to the other the power to manage his or her earnings. As optional systems, either husband or wife may request, without statement of reasons, the separate administration of his or her own earnings or property, and may also empower the other, by express authorization, to administer the common property or his or her own property.

6. All legal provisions which prevent a woman from practicing any kind of profession or from performing the duties of guardian, executrix, broker, etc., shall be amended.

In summary, the reform must be based on the principle of complete equality of husband and wife as regards rights and duties, and amendment must be made to those provisions which are injurious to the most sacred and inalienable right of a woman, the right of a mother over her children.

The signers of the list were headed by Dr. Paulina Luisi, for many years a leader in the work for the world's women and children. Her beneficial participation in League of Nations committees and other important activities is well known. Among other signers were:

Prof. Sara Rey Álvarez, Dr. María Inés Navarra, Srta. María Isabel Cedro Gilardo, Prof. Ofelia M. de Benvenuto, Sra. María Farachio de Kelly, Sra. Isabel Abelenda de Pazos, Sra. Luisa M. de Abellá, Sra. Isabel Pazos de Rivello, Sra. Elena V. de Escalante, Dr. Benigna Díez de Maceda, Dr. Clotilde Luisi de Podestá, Sra. Sara O. de Larramendy, Srta. Reyna Carro Díaz, Sra. Carmen G. de Simón, Sra. Yolanda Garayalde de Bonnacarrere, Dr. Julieta Daglio de Pérez, Prof. María Gorli de Bozzo, Prof. Isabel Penelas de Rodríguez, Prof. María L. de Federici, Srta. Cristina Sandoval, Srta. Aurora León, Srta. Amanda D'Ursi, Prof. Laura M. Escalante, Prof. María Ofelia Goyén, Prof. María Carbonell de Grompone, Sra. Reyna Reyes, Sra. María Scarone de Dutrel, Sra. Nilda Siri de Payssé, Sra. Anita García de Zúñiga, Sra. Genoveva Machado de Machi, Dr. Inés Luisi de Villero Tejera, Dr. Odelia R. Rodríguez Guerrero, and Prof. Celia Mieres de Centrón.

Guatemalan women organize

Under the title *La Unión Femenina Guatemalteca Pro Ciudadanía*, about six hundred Guatemalan women have organized to prepare themselves for exercise of the rights of

citizenship which they hope in future to enjoy. Their work is purely educational, and will have no connection with any political party. Women's associations and social groups in all parts of the country will be invited to send delegates. The chairman of the new organization will be Srta. Graciela Quan.

Colombian notes

Sra. María Currea de Aya, Colombian delegate to the Commission, is taking steps to open an office in Bogotá, in accordance with a resolution of the last meeting of the Commission.

Sra. de Aya, it is interesting to learn, recently called a meeting of teachers, as a result of which Teachers' Assemblies were organized under her presidency. It is hoped that this movement will spread throughout Colombia.

Dominican notes

Courses in Spanish for foreigners are now being offered in Ciudad Trujillo, capital of the Dominican Republic, with the able assistance of many teachers in the local schools.

Srta. Carmen Natalia Martínez Bonilla, a Dominican poet, has been in the United States on a trip for study and cultural rap-

prochement. Her most recent book of poetry is entitled *Alma Adentro*.

The Dominican Government has appointed Sra. Josefa Sánchez de González, a teacher, to succeed Srta. Carmita Landestoy as director of the women's section of the Dominican Party. Since Sra. de González is one of the most highly qualified women in the country, it is expected that her activities in this new position will prove beneficial to women in general.

Pilot Club International creates a Pan American Fellowship

Pilot Club International, a well-known women's organization which has done much to promote inter-American relations, has just awarded a fellowship to Srta. Leonor Mardones González, of Santiago, Chile, for social service study in the United States.

The president of the Pilot Club, Mrs. Etha G. Hall, in announcing the award said: "This is a service in which Pilot Club International can participate, with the satisfying knowledge that in carrying out the purposes for which we are banded together, we are making a vital contribution toward uniting ourselves culturally with those nations which have united so wholeheartedly with us economically in winning the war."

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other

publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in par-

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War and Adherence to the Joint Declarations by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATION OF WAR			Adherence to the Joint Declaration by the United Nations
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	
Argentina.....	¹ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(³)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12- 8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12- 8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (⁴)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	⁵ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43
United States.....	(⁶)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42

¹ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, in view of Italy's having changed sides in the war in July 1943.

² The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

³ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁴ Mexico had no Treaty of Friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁵ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

⁶ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

⁷ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

entheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro*

América; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XXXIV

ARGENTINA

106. March 8, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 5401, authorizing a specified Argentine firm and other like concerns to use government fuel tanks for the storage of crude linseed oil. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

121a. May 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 10,920, establishing a priority system for the transport of freight by rail, river, or coastwise traffic. (Mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, September 16, 1944.)

122a₁. May 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 12,725, fixing maximum prices for a specified alcohol denaturing mixture. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

122a₂. May 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 12,925, fixing maximum prices for a specified alcohol denaturing mixture. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

143. July 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,232, approving maximum prices for various articles in the city of Córdoba. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 1, 1944.)

144. July 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,233, approving maximum prices for articles of prime necessity in the Departments of Capital and Banda (Province of Santiago del Estero). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 1, 1944.)

145. July 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,234, approving maximum prices for fish in the province of Santiago del Estero. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 1, 1944.)

146. July 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,800, approving maximum prices for bread and biscuit in Junín de los Andes (National Territory of Neuquén). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

147. July 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,856, requiring all national, provincial, and municipal government employees to present their identity certificates to their employers annually during the first ten days of January and July for checking with the military authorities. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 10, 1944.)

148. July 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,896, making regulations for the distribution of iron and steel from Spain remaining after compliance with the provisions of Decree No. 150,593 of May 21, 1943 and Resolution No. 895 of September 18, 1943 (see Argentina 74e and 95d, BULLETIN, December 1943 and April 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

149. July 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,983, suspending for a period to be fixed by the National Rationing Council, the exportation of all kinds of domestic cotton, wool, or mixed yarn, thread, or textiles, and of their manufactures, and repealing all contrary legislation. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 24, 1944.)

150. July 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,052, placing domestic commerce in copper and its alloys under control of the National Rationing Council. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

151. July 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No.

20,263, fixing maximum prices for various food and clothing items in the Federal District. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 12, 1944.)

152. July 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,264, creating the National Transport Board, and defining its duties and functions. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 13, 1944.)

153. July 29, 1944. Resolution No. 12,777, Ministry of Agriculture, fixing at two percent the amount of cotton yarn which may be apportioned monthly for resale. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

154. July 29, 1944. Resolution No. 12,923, Ministry of Agriculture, fixing maximum retail prices for beef in the Federal District. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

155. August 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,262, creating the Department of Industry and Commerce, to take over the supervision of industry, commerce, power, technology, trade statistics, national defense, the National Rationing Council, etc. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, August 1, 1944.)

156. August 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,584, fixing maximum prices for a specified alcohol denaturing mixture. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 16, 1944.)

157. August 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,607, creating and outlining the duties and functions of the Corporation for the Production of Vegetable Rubber, to supervise and control the cultivation of rubber-yielding plants, their importation into the country, and extraction of rubber, in accordance with Decree No. 2,999 of July 22, 1943 (see Argentina 87*d*, BULLETIN, January 1944) which appropriated funds for this purpose. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 26, 1944.)

158. August 8, 1944. Resolution No. 791, Ministry of the Treasury, fixing standards by which internal taxes may be applied to incoming foreign shipments which do not conform to the ship's manifests. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 15, 1944.)

159. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree defining the duties of the newly established Department of Industry and Commerce (see 155 above). (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, August 10, 1944.)

160. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 21,331, authorizing the General Internal Tax Administration and the Office of National Securities to permit Argentine branches of foreign insurance companies to hold in foreign countries cash deposits or government bonds in pounds

sterling up to a specified amount. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 23, 1944.)

161. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 21,424, subjecting the exportation of hides and their manufactures to prior permit. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 11, 1944.)

162. August 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 21,421 transferring supervision over the commissions studying the sugar industry, the production of Portland cement, and the quebracho industry, and the commission investigating electrical concessions, from the Ministry of Agriculture to the Department of Industry and Commerce which was established by Decree No. 20,262 of August 1, 1944 (see 155 above). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 22, 1944.)

163. August 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 21,702, amending Decree No. 18,230 of December 31, 1943 (see Argentina 98*m*₁, BULLETIN, August 1944) which levied a temporary excess profits tax. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 24, 1944.)

164. August 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 21,703, making regulations for the application of the temporary excess profits tax levied by Decree No. 18,230 of December 31, 1943 and amended by Decree No. 21,702 of August 18, 1944 (see Argentina 98*m*₁ and 163, BULLETIN, August 1944 and above). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 24, 1944.)

165. August 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,016, stating that the Division of Textile Containers is to supply the National Potato Marketing Agency with a sufficient number of burlap bags for the potato crop. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

166. August 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,177, requiring the Agricultural Production Regulation Board to deposit a certain percentage of its income in a special account to provide for publicity outside the country on Argentine agricultural production. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

167. August 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,250, outlining the functions of the National Cotton Board. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

168. August 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,581, transferring supervision over the Argentine Corporation of Charcoal Producers to the Department of Industry and Commerce. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

169. August 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,734, amending Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see 121a above) to establish priorities for the transport of seed grown under government supervision. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 16, 1944.)

170. August 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,230, authorizing the Agricultural Production Regulation Board to sell 1,000,000 tons of wheat to Spain, each shipment to be first approved by the Permanent Interministerial Committee on Economic Policy. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 21, 1944.)

171. August 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 22,813, waiving import duties on antimony. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 12, 1944.)

172. August 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,847, entrusting to the Vice President the direction of studies on the postwar social and economic order of the country; explaining his duties in connection with this project; and creating the National Postwar Council as an advisory body. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

173. August 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,018, transferring supervision over the Division of Textile Containers to the Under Secretary of Agriculture. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 19, 1944.)

174. September 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,727, forbidding expression at public gatherings of any opinions on foreign policy which might be prejudicial to Argentina's world position. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 21, 1944.)

175. September 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,562, amending Decree No. 9967 of September 28, 1943 (see Argentina 98, BULLETIN, February 1944, as corrected in April and June 1944) to permit exportation of flaxseed under specified conditions. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 22, 1944.)

176. September 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,869, reorganizing the Bureau of Information and Press which was established by Decree No. 18,406 of December 31, 1943 (see Argentina 98, BULLETIN, May and June 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, September 16, 1944.)

177. September 5, 1944. Vice-Presidential Resolution No. 3, soliciting the cooperation of all federal, state, and local authorities in collecting legislation, plans, studies, projects and ideas on questions of political and economic postwar pol-

icy. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 15, 1944.)

178. September 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,009, declaring that various cotton factories will hereafter operate together under the direction of the Ministry of Agriculture as an independent agency to be known as the National Textile Bag Factory; this entity will have as its purpose the production of yarn or fabrics for textile containers for the use of the army, the navy, and government agencies. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

179. September 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,046, declaring subject to the control of the Ministry of Agriculture all enterprises concerned with the cultivation or production of cotton, its fiber, or its byproducts; requiring authorization by the Ministry of Agriculture for firms engaged in production of or commerce in cotton seed; requiring authorization for operating of cotton gins, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

180. September 8, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,443, stating that retailers of articles of prime necessity may not be directly or indirectly forced to purchase their stocks from official or private organizations. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 18, 1944.)

181. September 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,344, fixing prices for industrial analyses of rice. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

182. September 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,490, subjecting the exportation of breeding cattle to prior permit. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

183. September 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,491, subjecting the exportation of seeds or stock of various textile-producing plants, such as jute, hemp, flax, ramie, etc., to prior permit. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

184. September 13, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 24,509, requiring all foreign journalists or correspondents to procure within thirty days specific credentials from the Bureau of Information and Press, and requiring those who follow the armed forces to obtain their permits directly from the Ministries of War or Navy. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

BOLIVIA

37. September 26, 1944. Decree, Ministry of Public Health, authorizing special firms to import

penicillin. (*El Diario*, La Paz, September 27, 1944.)

BRAZIL

104i. July 17, 1944. Resolution No. 4, Pharmaceutical Convention Executive Commission, requiring manufacturers of pharmaceutical specialties to declare their stocks. (*Diário Oficial*, July 25, 1944.)

104b. July 24, 1944. Order No. 245, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, extending to hospitals, sanitariums, and similar institutions which sell drugs to the public the provisions of Order No. 151 of October 28, 1943 (see Brazil 92*a*, BULLETIN, June 1944), in reference to the commercial handling of pharmaceutical products. (*Diário Oficial*, July 25, 1944.)

110. July 31, 1944. Order No. 249, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, transferring the personnel and effects of the Supervisory and Executive Textile Committee to the Executive Textile Commission created by Decree-Law No. 6688 of July 13, 1944 (see Brazil 104, BULLETIN, October and December 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, August 5, 1944.)

111. August 7, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6771, making the Federal Government, through the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, the sole distributor of coal mined in the country, and prescribing other measures to regulate its distribution. (*Diário Oficial*, August 9, 1944.)

112. August 7, 1944. Order No. 37, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing prices for white bread in the Federal District. (*Diário Oficial*, August 8, 1944.)

113. August 18, 1944. Order No. 67, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing prices for Portuguese olive oil. (*Diário Oficial*, August 19, 1944.)

114. August 22, 1944. Order No. 266, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, centralizing all publicity material in the Publicity Service of the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization. (*Diário Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

115. August 25, 1944. Order No. 268, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, centralizing the organization of Brazilian railway priorities in the National Department of Railways, in accordance with the provisions of Order No. 237 of June 13, 1944 (see Brazil 103*a*, BULLETIN, November 1944. (*Diário Oficial*, August 26, 1944.)

116. August 28, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6335, amending Decree-Law No. 6688 of July 13, 1944 (see Brazil 104, BULLETIN, October and December 1944), with particular reference to textile workers who are also members of the army reserve. (*Diário Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

117. August 28, 1944. Resolution No. 71, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, prohibiting for 60 days beginning September 1, 1944, the manufacture in the capital and its environs of ice cream and candies made with ordinary milk. (*Diário Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

118. August 30, 1944. Order No. 269, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating a Supply Commission for the Territory of Amapá and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, August 31, 1944.)

119. September 4, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6845, assuring to collectors of rubber and manufacturers of rubber articles, who operate in accordance with the terms of Decree-Law No. 6122 of December 11, 1943 (see Brazil 95*l*, BULLETIN, June 1944) 50 percent of the proceeds of their work. (*Diário Oficial*, September 6, 1944.)

120. September 5, 1944. Decree No. 16,526, approving the regulations of the Executive Textile Commission. (*Diário Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

121. September 5, 1944. Resolution No. 1, Special Assistant to the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization in charge of distribution of national coal, fixing distribution for coal produced in September 1944 and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Diário Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

122. September 6, 1944. Resolution No. 73, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing prices for codfish imported from Newfoundland and Canada. (*Diário Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

123. October 23, 1944. Recognition by Brazil of the government of General de Gaulle as the provisional government of France. (*Boletim Aéreo* No. 321, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, October 27, 1944.)

124. October 24, 1944. Presidential order immediately suspending police supervision of Italians in Brazil. (*Boletim Aéreo* No. 322, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, November 3, 1944.)

125. October 26, 1944. Recognition by Brazil of the Italian government and reestablishment of diplomatic relations with Italy. (*Boletim Aéreo No. 322, Secção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, November 3, 1944.*)

CHILE

6a. February 27, 1942. Resolution No. 197, Department of Mines and Petroleum, adding five pesos per ton to maximum sale prices of Diesel oil. (*Diario Oficial, February 27, 1942.*)

79a. May 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 552, declaring the use of rented quarters to be a commodity of prime necessity as contemplated by Law No. 7,747 (see Chile 76c, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial, August 11, 1944.*)

79b. May 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 345, appointing a commission to study, coordinate, control, and apply, in accordance with Law No. 7,747 (see Chile 76c, BULLETIN, June 1944), such measures in regard to severance of commercial and financial relations with enemy and enemy-occupied countries as are contemplated in Resolution No. V approved by the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics. (*Diario Oficial, July 6, 1944.*)

81. June 14, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 661, prohibiting increases in freight rates of waterborne foreign commerce except as authorized by the Ministry of Economy and Commerce. (*Diario Oficial, July 6, 1944.*)

82. July 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 856, establishing a commission for control of the conservation and distribution of imported and domestic penicillin. (*Diario Oficial, July 13, 1944.*)

83. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,621, regulating the production of alcohol for addition to benzine. (*Diario Oficial, July 18, 1944.*)

84. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,622, regulating the addition of alcohol to gasoline. (*Diario Oficial, July 15, 1944.*)

85. July 6, 1944. Law No. 7,777, authorizing the President to exercise for six months more the powers conferred by Law No. 7,401 of December 31, 1942 for protection of the nation (see Chile 45e, BULLETIN, May 1943). (*Diario Oficial, July 7, 1944.*)

86. July 6, 1944. Resolution No. 12, Petroleum Supply Committee, repealing Resolution No. 7

of June 1, 1944, which fixed hours for the sale of gasoline; also fixing new hours of sale, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial, July 8, 1944.*)

87. July 7, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 744, declaring gum lac to be an article of common use. (*Diario Oficial, July 21, 1944.*)

88. July 7, 1944. Decree No. 1,839, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, repealing the requirement that used tires be turned in when new ones are purchased. (*Diario Oficial, July 11, 1944.*)

89. July 8, 1944. Decree No. 1,869, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, calling for declaration of existing supplies of oak and certain other woods in certain provinces. (*Diario Oficial, July 11, 1944.*)

90. July 8, 1944. Decree No. 1,879, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new maximum prices for national cement (see Chile 47f, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diario Oficial, July 11, 1944.*)

91. July 8, 1944. Resolution No. 14, Petroleum Supply Committee, fixing rules for the sale of gasoline to buses and taxis. (*Diario Oficial, July 13, 1944.*)

92. July 10, 1944. Resolution No. 15, Petroleum Supply Committee, announcing cuts in gasoline rations. (*Diario Oficial, July 26, 1944.*)

93. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 786, requiring the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat to fix retail prices with due regard for business expenses, legitimate profits, and rapidity of turnover. (*Diario Oficial, July 31, 1944.*)

94. July 12, 1944. Decree No. 1,885, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for mutton in Santiago and Valparaíso. (*Diario Oficial, July 15, 1944.*)

95. July 15, 1944. Resolution No. 16, Petroleum Supply Committee, prohibiting the sale of gasoline in Santiago and Valparaíso for private automobiles and certain types of buses, with certain exceptions, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial, July 18, 1944.*)

96. July 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 794, approving the regulation of Law No. 6,844 of March 4, 1941 in regard to rent control, as amended by Law No. 7,747 of December 23, 1943 and by Decree No. 552 of May 22, 1944 (see

Chile 76c, BULLETIN, June 1944 and 79a above). (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1944.)

97. July 17, 1944. Resolution No. 17, Petroleum Supply Committee, amending Resolution No. 15 of July 10, 1944 (see Chile 92 above) to make further reductions in gasoline rations. (*Diario Oficial*, July 19, 1944.)

98. July 18, 1944. Decree No. 1,924, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, repealing the provisions of Decree No. 902 of May 20, 1943 (see Chile 58a, BULLETIN, January 1944) which prohibited clearance of consignments of oilseeds without authorization from the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat. (*Diario Oficial*, July 21, 1944.)

99. July 18, 1944. Decree No. 1,933 bis, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, prescribing measures of rent control in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 794 (see Chile 96 above), and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1944.)

100. July 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 806, repealing Decree No. 696 (see Chile 73, BULLETIN, June 1944), which regulated the use of rubber in manufacturing; prohibiting the use of crude natural, synthetic, or reclaimed rubber without special authorization from the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat; listing priorities for rubber manufactures; and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, August 5, 1944.)

101. July 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 809, approving Decree No. 1,933 bis of the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat (see Chile 99 above) on rent control. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1944.)

102. July 20, 1944. Decree No. 1,979 General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for polished rice in the department of Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1944.)

103. July 21, 1944. Resolution No. 19, Petroleum Supply Committee, amending Resolutions No. 15 and 17 of July 10 and 17 (see Chile 92 and 97 above) which reduced gasoline rations, to make special provision for gasoline rations for farm machinery of the Production Promotion Corporation. (*Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1944.)

104. July 21, 1944. Resolution No. 20, Petroleum Supply Committee, repealing Resolution No. 16 (see Chile 95 above) and permitting the sale of gasoline in Santiago and Valparaíso under the

regulations prescribed by Resolution No. 12 (see Chile 86 above). (*Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1944.)

105. July 22, 1944. Resolution No. 8, Public Transit and Transportation Board, regulating the use of private automobiles. (*Diario Oficial*, July 26, 1944.)

106. July 28, 1944. Decree No. 2,111, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, repealing certain provisions of Decree No. 916 (see Chile 21e, BULLETIN, January 1943) in regard to the use of tin cans. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1944.)

107. July 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 843, declaring tallow to be an article of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, August 12, 1944.)

108. July 31, 1944. Decree No. 2,134, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new maximum producer and wholesale prices for alfalfa (see Chile 76b, BULLETIN, September 1944.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 3, 1944.)

109. August 1, 1944. Decree No. 2,148, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, regulating the use of imported and domestic silk, rayon, cotton, and wool yarns. (*Diario Oficial*, August 3, 1944.)

110. August 1, 1944. Resolution No. 22, Petroleum Supply Committee, amplifying Resolution No. 14 (see Chile 91 above) and fixing hours for the sale of gasoline in Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

111. August 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,180, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for polished rice in certain additional cities (see Chile 102 above). (*Diario Oficial*, August 7, 1944.)

112. August 8, 1944. Decree No. 2,212, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for yerba maté from Brazil. (*Diario Oficial*, August 10, 1944.)

113. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 913, declaring certain drugs to be essential to the nation and requiring declarations of stocks. (*Diario Oficial*, August 26, 1944.)

114. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 914, declaring wire, sugar, coal, rubber, and various other commodities to be essential to the nation and requiring declarations of stocks. (*Diario Oficial*, August 26, 1944.)

115. August 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3,046, amending certain provisions of Decree No. 2,621 (see Chile 83 above) in regard to the

addition of alcohol to gasoline. (*Diario Oficial*, August 24, 1944.)

116. August 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3,069, extending for one year from July 20, 1944 the provisions of Decree No. 4,223 (see Chile 76*b*, BULLETIN, September 1944) which reduced duties on imports of asphalt and fuel oil when effected through the Department of Public Works. (*Diario Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

117. August 14, 1944. Decree No. 2,292, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,027 (see Chile 74*a*, BULLETIN, May 1944) in regard to maximum meat prices in Santiago and Valparaíso. (*Diario Oficial*, August 17, 1944.)

118. August 14, 1944. Decree No. 5,999-d, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum retail prices for alfalfa in Santiago (see Chile 108 above). (*Diario Oficial*, August 17, 1944.)

119. August 14, 1944. Decree No. 6,000-d, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new retail prices in Santiago for yerba maté from Brazil. (*Diario Oficial*, August 17, 1944.)

120. August 21, 1944. Resolution No. 24, Petroleum Supply Committee, making regulations for the retail sale of gasoline. (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

121. August 22, 1944. Decree No. 2,340, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale prices for certain brands of thread in Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

122. August 23, 1944. Resolution No. 25, Petroleum Supply Committee, temporarily increasing to fifteen pesos per ton the five pesos added to the maximum sale price of Diesel oil by Resolution No. 197 of February 27, 1942 (see Chile 6*a* above), to be effective from September 1, 1944 to December 31, 1944. (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

123. August 24, 1944. Decree No. 2,345, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing new maximum wholesale prices for edible oils and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, August 26, 1944.)

COLOMBIA

72*a*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

(Correction) Item 93*a*, BULLETIN, November 1944, should have been numbered 93*b*.

125*a*. June 9, 1944. Resolution No. 389, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 39 of October 6, 1943 (see Colombia 90*c*, BULLETIN, March 1944) to provide for the importation of wheat flour. (*Diario Oficial*, September 7, 1944.)

125*b*. June 9, 1944. Resolution No. 390, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 26 of January 15, 1944 (see Colombia 101, BULLETIN, June 1944) which fixed wholesale and retail beef prices for Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

125*c*. June 14, 1944. Resolution No. 639 bis, Ministry of Labor, Hygiene, and Social Welfare, regulating the distribution and use of penicillin. (*Diario Oficial*, July 7, 1944.)

125*d*. June 15, 1944. Resolution No. 392, National Price Control Office, amplifying Resolution No. 26 of January 15, 1944 (see Colombia 101, BULLETIN, June 1944) which fixed maximum wholesale and retail beef prices for Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, September 13, 1944.)

127*a*. July 13, 1944. Resolution No. 144, National Transportation and Rate Office, fixing sale prices for certain kinds of tires and tubes. (*Diario Oficial*, August 3, 1944.)

127*b*. July 19, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 1,693, regulating trade in platinum. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1944.)

128*a*. July 29, 1944. Resolution No. 470, National Price Control Office, prohibiting the exportation of quinine and requiring declaration of stocks. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1944.)

128*b*. July 31, 1944. Resolution No. 471, National Price Control Office, clarifying Resolution No. 470 (see Colombia 128*a* above) which prohibited the exportation of quinine. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1944.)

128*c*. August 11, 1944. Resolution No. 508, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum retail prices for penicillin. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

130. August 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,010, providing for the duty-free importation by the national government of cement needed by the departments for public works. (*Diario Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

131. August 21, 1944. Resolution No. 514, National Price Control Office, fixing prices for certain domestic cements. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

132. August 22, 1944. Resolution No. 515, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 39 of October 6, 1944 (see Colombia 90c, BULLETIN, March 1944) to fix prices for flour made with imported wheat, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

133. August 23, 1944. Resolution No. 520, National Price Control Office, clarifying Resolution No. 514 (see Colombia 131 above), which fixed prices for certain domestic cements. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

134. August 24, 1944. Resolution No. 522, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum retail prices for imported lard in Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

135. August 28, 1944. Resolution No. 523, National Price Control Office regulating the retail sale of sugar in Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, September 15, 1944.)

136. August 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,043, amending Decree No. 1,999 of August 18, 1944 (see Colombia 129, BULLETIN, December 1944) to permit the national government to import explosive materials through private agencies under supervision of the Ministry of War. (*Diario Oficial*, September 12, 1944.)

137. August 31, 1944. Executive Resolution No. 140, authorizing an importation of lard for army use under Executive Resolution No. 95 of June 1, 1944 (see Colombia 125, BULLETIN, November 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, September 13, 1944.)

138. September 1, 1944. Resolution No. 536, National Price Control Office, fixing new minimum prices for domestic wheat, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

139. September 1, 1944. Resolution No. 537, National Price Control Office, directing local Public Improvement Boards in Bogotá to supervise the execution of the Price Control Office's orders on lard, sugar, flour, drugs, meat, and building materials. (*Diario Oficial*, September 18, 1944.)

140. September 7, 1944. Resolution No. 543, National Price Control Office, fixing new maximum retail prices for certain quinine preparations. (*Diario Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

141. September 12, 1944. Executive Resolution No. 150, permitting a further importation of lard under conditions specified in Executive Resolution No. 95 of June 1, 1944 (see Colombia 125, BULLETIN, November 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, September 18, 1944.)

COSTA RICA

133a. October 20, 1943. Legislative Decree No. 21, amending Law No. 37 of July 13, 1943 (see Costa Rica 112, BULLETIN, November 1943) which created the Central Supply Board, to change the number of members of the Board from five to three. (*La Gaceta*, October 24, 1943.)

172. August 30, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 206, repealing Law No. 26 of August 14, 1942 (see Costa Rica 41, BULLETIN, January 1943) which created the Gasoline Rationing Board, and parts of Law No. 34 of July 8, 1943 and Law No. 72 of August 4, 1943 (see Costa Rica 111 and 116, BULLETIN, November 1943 and January 1944) which prescribed measures against speculation; and creating the Office of Economic Defense (*Oficina de Defensa Económica*) to carry out measures for control of the adverse effects of the war on the national economy, and to study and recommend other such measures. (*La Gaceta*, September 3, 1944.)

173. September 9, 1944. Legislative Order No. 10, continuing for sixty days the suspension of certain constitutional guarantees. (*La Gaceta*, September 12, 1944.)

174. October 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 27, repealing Decree No. 19 of April 14, 1944 (see Costa Rica 160, BULLETIN, August 1944), which reduced to ten days the period of free storage in customs for specified articles. (*La Gaceta*, October 10, 1944.)

CUBA

587a. May 19, 1944. Resolution No. 227, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing maximum prices for national and imported cement to October 30, 1944, at which time the prices established by Resolution No. 147 of October 11, 1943, as amended by Resolution No. 158 of November 29, 1943 (see Cuba 480 and 500, BULLETIN, February and April 1944) will again be in effect. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 25, 1944, p. 8641.)

651a. September 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3127, extending to motorized, air and maritime public carrier enterprises in Cuba the customs exemptions on new equipment and repair parts imported from the United States provided for other industries in Presidential Decree No. 833 of March 15, 1944 (see Cuba 545d, BULLETIN, July 1944), and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 29, 1944, p. 16039.)

657. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3168, extending the increased wage benefits of Presidential Decree No. 2631 of August 19, 1944 (see Cuba 644, BULLETIN, November 1944) to clinic, hospital, and similar workers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 28, 1944, p. 16005.)

658. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3170, extending the increased wage benefits of Presidential Decree No. 2631 (see Cuba 644, BULLETIN, November 1944) to workers in the newspaper and publishing industries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 28, 1944, p. 16007.)

659. September 26, 1944. Resolution No. 257, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, making additional provisions concerning the acquisition of tires and tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 3, 1944, p. 16259.)

660. September 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3371, extending to port and maritime workers the increased wage benefits of Presidential Decree No. 2631 (see Cuba 644, BULLETIN, November 1944.). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 5, 1944, p. 16489.)

661. September 29, 1944. General Order No. 18, Cuban Maritime Commission, providing that for the three months beginning October 1, 1944, boats of 10,000 tons or more may carry only sugar, minerals, or other products the priority of which is determined by the Commission on its own initiative or at the request of United Nations agencies; and making other provisions to regulate Cuban maritime cargoes and traffic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 20, 1944, p. 17189.)

662. October 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3725, placing the Import-Export Agency and the Office of Price Regulation and Supply under the Ministry of Commerce again (see Cuba 159 and 501, BULLETIN, August 1942 and April 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 25, 1944, p. 17455.)

663. October 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3779, amending the general tax system with a view to coordinating and simplifying it, by suspending the collection of 19 specified taxes, certain ones of which were levied as war emergency taxes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 25, 1944, p. 17450.)

664. October 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3790, abolishing the Alcohol Regulatory Agency created by Presidential Decree No. 902 of April 5, 1944 (see Cuba 560, BULLETIN, July 1944), and transferring its duties and functions to the Import-Export Agency under the Ministry of Com-

merce. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 26, 1944, p. 17603.)

665. October 23, 1944. Resolution No. 262, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, declaring specified building materials (wood, tiles, brick, wire, building paper, nails, etc.) to be articles of prime necessity, freezing stocks, requiring declarations of stocks, and prescribing other measures to control distribution and supply. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 25, 1944, p. 17444.)

666. October 23, 1944. Resolution No. 263, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, broadening the powers and authority of the chairman of the Meat Supply Regulatory Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 27, 1944, p. 17667.)

667. October 25, 1944. Resolution No. 264, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing ordinary quotas for tires and tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 31, 1944, p. 17859.)

668. October 26, 1944. Resolution No. 265, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing new procedures for tire and tube rationing. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 31, 1944, p. 17859.)

669. October 28, 1944. Resolution No. 266, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing measures concerning fuel rationing. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 1, 1944, p. 17987.)

670. October 28, 1944. Resolution No. 267, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, continuing in effect to December 31, 1944, the prices for cement fixed by Resolution No. 227 of May 19, 1944 (see 587a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 1, 1944, p. 17987.)

671. October 30, 1944. Resolution No. 268, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing the use of 1,000 tons of peanut flour for feed for dairy cattle, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 1, 1944, p. 17988.)

672. October 31, 1944. Resolution No. 269, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, repealing Resolution No. 262 of October 23, 1944 (see 665 above), insofar as it pertains to specified construction materials, but continuing it in effect for other specified materials, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 4, 1944, p. 18147.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

134. May 8, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1909, establishing a General Import and Export Control Office and an Advisory and Technical

Commission to work with it, and outlining their duties and functions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1944.)

134b. Resolution No. 60, National Commission of Transportation and Petroleum Control, prescribing measures to control the acquisition of tires and tubes, requiring periodic declarations of ownership of motor vehicles, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 28, 1944.)

134c. June 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2002, establishing official control over the importation, withdrawal from customs, and the sale of penicillin and creating a Penicillin Control Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1944.)

134d. June 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2008, authorizing the exportation to the United States in the current year of 95,916 gallons of alcohol converted into aguardiente, and prescribing regulations pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1944.)

134e. June 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2010, giving the force of a decree to Resolution No. 60 of the National Commission of Transportation and Petroleum Control (see 134b above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 28, 1944.)

136. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2043, amending Decree No. 82 of June 23, 1942, which established the Pharmaceutical Products Price Control Commission (see Dominican Republic 41, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 15, 1944.)

137. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2044, suspending the exportation of native gold in any form except by special permission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1944.)

138. July 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2052, regulating the functioning of the low-cost restaurants opened by the Government for the benefit of the poorer classes as a measure to protect them from the increased cost of foodstuffs resulting from the war and authorizing operation of the restaurants until the end of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 22, 1944.)

139. July 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2055, subjecting to special permit from the Director General of the Import and Export Control Office all commercial operations concerned with any kind of textiles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 22, 1944.)

140. July 27, 1944. Presidential Decree No.

2077, amending Decree No. 1168 of May 26, 1943 (see Dominican Republic 89a, BULLETIN, December 1943), which established control over paper. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 2, 1944.)

141. August 2, 1944. Schedule No. 8, Pharmaceutical Products Control Commission, fixing prices for anti-typhoid vaccines. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 18, 1944.)

142. August 14, 1944. Schedule No. 9, Pharmaceutical Products Control Commission, fixing prices for anti-typhoid serums. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

143. August 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2118, giving the force of a decree to Schedule No. 8 of the Pharmaceutical Products Control Commission (see 141 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 18, 1944.)

144. August 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2143, giving the force of a decree to Schedule No. 9 of the Pharmaceutical Products Control Commission (see 142 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

145. August 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2151, establishing official control over the exportation of wheat, corn, and peanut bran. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 30, 1944.)

146. September 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2179, regulating the packing of hulled rice. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 20, 1944.)

ECUADOR

74b₁. June 20, 1944. Executive Order No. 22, prescribing rules and regulations pertaining to the procurement of certificates of nationality by persons affected by Presidential Decree No. 3109 of May 23, 1944 (see Ecuador 74b, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, August 3, 1944.)

74f. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 287, authorizing the Central Bank to redeem at any time the quota of gold certificates considered necessary when associated banks show they have dealt in products such as cotton, rice, and sugar, or have advanced money to finance the withdrawal from customs of products of recognized national necessity; and authorizing the Bank to readjust at any time investments made by associated banks in the gold certificates, in conformity with Presidential Decree No. 1046 of July 13, 1943 (see Ecuador 54, BULLETIN, November 1943 and April 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, July 13, 1944.)

74g. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 290, ordering the liquidation of a specified oil company in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 854 of June 11, 1943 (see Ecuador 52c, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Registro Oficial*, July 13, 1944.)

75. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 291. (*Registro Oficial*, July 15, 1944.)

76. July 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 319, amending the statutes of the Ecuadorean Development Corporation (see Ecuador 19b, BULLETIN, February 1943), for the purpose of improving its administrative procedures. Retroactive to July 1, 1944. (*Registro Oficial*, July 17, 1944.)

77. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 341, creating the General Office of National Security and Continental Defense and outlining its duties and functions with respect to continental defense and the Allied cause. (*Registro Oficial*, July 14, 1944.)

78. July 12, 1944. Executive Order No. 195, approving regulations relative to the application of the law creating the General Office of National Security and Continental Defense (see 77 above). (*Registro Oficial*, July 19, 1944.)

79. July 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 488, prescribing rules and regulations to be followed by a Special Commission charged with examining transfers of blocked properties. (*Registro Oficial*, August 3, 1944.)

80. July 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 557, authorizing the Central Bank of Ecuador to redeem each week gold certificates acquired by banks of the country to the date of this decree in the amount of 10 percent of their total until they have been completely liquidated, and amending the Organic Law of the Central Bank to facilitate the extension of credit. (*Registro Oficial*, August 5, 1944.)

81. August 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 601, repealing the legislative decree of October 12, 1899, authorizing the issuance of residence permits to Chinese, and making provisions for the immigration of Chinese to Ecuador. (*Registro Oficial*, August 5, 1944.)

82. August 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 651, amending Decree No. 488 of July 21, 1944 (see 79 above), regarding transfers of blocked properties. (*Registro Oficial*, August 9, 1944.)

83. August 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 702, fixing the price of and the federal tax on

petroleum. (*Registro Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

84. August 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 743, amending Decree No. 179 of June 22, 1944 (see Ecuador 74d, BULLETIN, December 1944), regarding the exportation of rice. (*Registro Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

85. August 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 757, creating a National Department of Information and Publicity, and outlining its duties and functions. (*Registro Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

86. August 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 759, providing for a general plan for the development of economic activities in the country, making provisions for the extension of necessary credit, and outlining other procedures necessary for the execution of the plan. (*Registro Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

87. August 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 800, repealing Decree No. 1994 of December 16, 1943, which created the National Commission for the Study of Post-War Problems (see Ecuador 69, BULLETIN, May 1944); creating the Ecuadorean National Commission (*Comisión Nacional Ecuatoriana*) for the study of post-war economic, financial, monetary, social, migratory, international, political, and juridical problems; and outlining its duties and functions. (*Registro Oficial*, August 21, 1944.)

EL SALVADOR

87b. June 30, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 80, suspending for a year all consular duties and taxes on the importation of cotton thread. (*Diario Oficial*, July 7, 1944.)

88a. July 3, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 79, suspending customs duties on the importation of untanned pig and cow hides from Central America. (*Diario Oficial*, July 7, 1944.)

95. September 7, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 24, authorizing the Ministry of the Treasury to acquire outside the country 100,000 quintals of white and yellow sugar for internal consumption, exempting this sugar from import duties, and authorizing the Committee on Economic Coordination to fix prices and regulate distribution thereof. (*Diario Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

96. September 8, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 25, approving a special budget for the Cotton Yarn Rationing Board which was created by the Executive Decree of August 8, 1944 (see El Salvador 92, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

GUATEMALA

118a. August 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3138, prescribing procedure for the execution of Presidential Decree No. 3134 of August 14, 1944 (see Guatemala 118, BULLETIN, December 1944), which ordered the expropriation of property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists. (*Diario de Centro América*, August 23, 1944.)

120. September 5, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 2812, approving Presidential Decree No. 3138 of August 23, 1944 (see Guatemala 118a above), which prescribed procedure for expropriation of property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists; and making certain minor amendments. (*Diario de Centro América*, September 5, 1944.)

121. October 6, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3153, clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decrees Nos. 3134 and 3138 (see Guatemala 118, BULLETIN, December 1944, and 118a above), which ordered the expropriation of property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 7, 1944.)

HONDURAS

40a. March 7, 1944. Presidential Order No. 1411, creating a National Commission of Food and Agriculture under the Secretary of Development, Agriculture and Labor and outlining its duties and functions. (*La Gaceta*, October 13, 1944.)

MEXICO

243f. April 20, 1944. Decree approving the agreement of January 22, 1943, between Mexico and the United States regarding military service by nationals of either country residing in the other (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 70, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, October 4, 1944.)

243g. April 20, 1944. Decree publishing the texts of the notes exchanged between the Governments of Mexico and the Netherlands relative to the agreement between the two countries regarding military service (see Mexico 222b and Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 66a, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, November 6, 1944.)

246a. May 30, 1944. Decree amending certain articles of the decree of April 25, 1944 (see Mexico 244a, BULLETIN, August 1944), vesting in the Department of National Economy the authority to regulate trade and control national production of cement, corrugated iron sheets, bars, and tubes.

Effective 3 days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 19, 1944.)

259a. August 2, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, September 27, 1944.)

259a. August 2, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, September 27, 1944.)

259a. August 3, 1944. Law supplementing and amending the law of December 17, 1942, which established the Committee for the Development and Coordination of Scientific Investigation (see Mexico 112, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, October 16, 1944.)

261a. August 24, 1944. Decree supplementing the law that regulated the law on the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees (see Mexico 43 and 84, BULLETIN, September and December 1942). Effective day after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, October 20, 1944.)

262a. August 26, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

262b. August 29, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, October 11, 1944.)

263a. August 30, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, removing a specified person from the list contained in the order of June 30, 1943 (see Mexico 178b, BULLETIN, November 1943), relative to application of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, October 23, 1944.)

265a. September 13, 1944. Decree adding specified products to the list of those placed under export control by the decree of June 15, 1944 (see Mexico 247c, BULLETIN, October 1944); listing others not subject to control; and making other provisions pertaining thereto. Effective on publi-

cation in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, October 24, 1944.)

265b. September 13, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, October 24, 1944.)

265c. September 20, 1944. Regulations of the decree of June 20, 1944, which established a consumption tax on cotton (see Mexico 249, BULLETIN, October 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, October 7, 1944.)

268. October 10, 1944. Decree placing under export control specified ixtle manufactures and making other provisions pertaining thereto. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, October 25, 1944.)

269. October 20, 1944. Circular No. 309-4-121, Ministry of the Treasury and Public Credit, restricting the importation of common salt, in accordance with the decree of April 15, 1944 (see Mexico 243a, BULLETIN, August 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, October 27, 1944.)

270. October 25, 1944. Decree authorizing the Department of the Federal District to regulate within its jurisdiction wholesale and retail prices of articles of prime necessity (with the exception of wheat, rice, beans, corn, lard, edible oils, sugar, flour, salt, cacao, tires, rubber, cotton, gasoline, iron bars, and cement, for which price fixing is vested in the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit), and making other provisions pertaining thereto. Effective day after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, October 26, 1944.)

NICARAGUA

571. February 21, 1944. Executive Decree placing control of visible imports under the Price and Trade Control Board. (*La Gaceta*, February 23, 1944.)

61. July 1, 1944. Legislative Resolution No. 64, approving the executive decree of February 21, 1944 (see Nicaragua 571 above) which placed control of visible imports under the Price and Trade Control Board. (*La Gaceta*, August 22, 1944.)

62. July 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3, ordering the issue of 568 defense bonds totaling two million córdobas, in accordance with Legislative Decree No. 256 of August 7, 1943 (see

Nicaragua 52, BULLETIN, January 1944). (*La Gaceta*, August 2, 1944.)

63. August 4, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 299, protecting tenants from rent increases and from unwarranted eviction, and making other provisions. (*La Gaceta*, August 11, 1944.)

PANAMA

112. August 31, 1944. Decree No. 50, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, fixing maximum prices for specified foodstuffs in the District of Chepigana. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 5, 1944.)

113. September 8, 1944. Decree No. 52, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, amending Decree No. 8 of 1942 (see Panama 38, BULLETIN, February 1943), regarding the sale and distribution of national products of prime necessity that reach the city of Panama by sea or by land. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

114. September 8, 1944. Decree No. 53, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, regulating and buying and selling of hogs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

PARAGUAY

28b. (Correction) January 29, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 16,785. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 1, 1943.)

28c. January 29, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 16,787, fixing consumption quotas of fuel oils and lubricants for government agencies during 1943. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 1, 1943.)

28d. February 1, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 16,802, fixing prices for inferior grade tobacco of the 1943 crop, authorizing the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay to purchase such tobacco, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 1, 1943.)

28e. February 1, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 16,804, authorizing the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay to purchase the agricultural products listed in Decree No. 13,925 of August 7, 1942, at the prices fixed therein (see Paraguay 22a, BULLETIN, May 1944), and to purchase cotton at the price fixed by Decree No. 16,785 of January 29, 1943 (see Paraguay 28b, BULLETIN, July 1943, as corrected above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 1, 1943.)

531. March —, 1944 (?). Decree-Law No. 2810, establishing the Paraguayan Meat Corpora-

tion (*Corporación Paraguaya de Carnes*) and outlining its duties and functions. (Mentioned in *El País*, Asunción, September 19, 1944.)

58. September 18, 1944. Resolution No. 1, Paraguayan Meat Corporation, fixing winter prices for beef cattle destined for packing plants and eventual public consumption, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*El País*, Asunción, September 19, 1944.)

59. September 27, 1944. Presidential decree prohibiting the exportation of certain articles of prime necessity (rice, yerba maté, flour, peanuts, cottonseed, edible oils and fats, and their derivatives). (*El País*, Asunción, September 28, 1944.)

PERU

129a. July 1, 1944. Supreme Resolution No. 807, amending Resolution No. 599 of September 23, 1943 (see Peru 99b, BULLETIN, March 1944) and fixing new minimum prices for unhulled rice. (*El Peruano*, August 25, 1944.)

132. August 7, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance, approving a supplement to the Official Price List for Pharmaceutical Products, and allowing a thirty day period in which prevailing prices are to be adjusted to this new list. (*El Peruano*, August 23, 1944.)

133. August 8, 1944. Supreme Decree No. 74, stating that the General Price List for Medicinal Products will be published annually on a date set by the Ministry of Public Health and that supplementary lists must be issued every three months. (*El Peruano*, August 23, 1944.)

URUGUAY

163a. October 14, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 1581/943, authorizing the Bank of the Republic to purchase 750 tons of tin and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Diario Oficial*, October 30, 1943.)

221. July 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2335/938, requiring declarations of stocks of *supercarburante* (a kind of fuel produced by the ANCAP), the sale of which was suspended in March 1943, and authorizing exchange of the product for other fuel. (*Diario Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

222. July 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1590/943, adding trucks and truck chassis to the list of articles of prime necessity established by Law No. 10,075 of October 23, 1941. (*Diario Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

223. July 26, 1944. Presidential decree instructing Uruguayan delegates to international conferences for the study of problems relating to labor legislation and postwar world economic, juridical, and social organization to uphold certain ethical principles in regard to commercial interchange and the condition of workers. (*Diario Oficial*, August 16, 1944.)

224. August 8, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 800/944, authorizing the exportation of 3,500 tons of wheat and prescribing other measures pertaining to existing stocks of the 1942-43 crop. (*Diario Oficial*, August 19, 1944.)

225. August 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2015/943, approving prices fixed by the ANCAP for syrups and grape wine in casks and demijohns, but continuing in effect the prices fixed for those products in other types of containers by the decree of October 15, 1943 (see Uruguay 164, BULLETIN, April 1944.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 19, 1944.)

226. August 10, 1944. Presidential decree creating a commission to fix prices for serums, vaccines, and medicines. (*Diario Oficial*, August 23, 1944.)

227. August 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 303/944, opening a quota for the exportation to Argentina during the current year of 25 tons of articles made of reclaimed rubber, on the basis of compensation or exchange for articles or materials needed in Uruguay, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Diario Oficial*, August 23, 1944.)

228. August 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 239/942, requiring declaration of stocks of wood. (*Diario Oficial*, August 28, 1944.)

229. September 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1590/943, requiring declarations of stocks of gas for medical purposes. (*Diario Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

230. September 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 825/944, fixing maximum prices for tin acquired by the Bank of the Republic in accordance with the decrees of August 26, 1943, and October 14, 1943 (see Uruguay 151 and 163a, BULLETIN, February 1944 and above). (*Diario Oficial*, September 8, 1944.)

231. September 8, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1239/942, extending for 30 days the period fixed by the decree of July 14, 1944 (see Uruguay 214, BULLETIN, December 1944), for the submission by the special study commission of a plan for solution of lumber market problems. (*Diario Oficial*, September 13, 1944.)

232. September 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 730/944, authorizing the exportation of 50,000 cases of fresh eggs to the United Kingdom. (*Diario Oficial*, September 25, 1944.)

VENEZUELA

131c. December 23, 1943. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising all foreigners resident in the state of Táchira that they must appear at specified times within a 180 day period before the National Office of Investigation and Identification to be given identity certificates. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1943.)

131d. December 23, 1943. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising foreigners of specified nationalities resident in the state of Táchira that in accordance with the official notice of December 23, 1943 (see 131c above) they must apply for identity certificates as soon as possible. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1943.)

154. (Correction) May 10, 1944. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising all foreigners resident in the state of Zulia that they must appear at specified times within a 180 day period before the National Office of Investigation and Identification to be given identity certificates. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1944.)

154a. May 10, 1944. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising foreigners of specified nationalities resident in the state of Zulia that in accordance with the official notice of May 10, 1944 (see 154 above) they must apply for identity certificates as soon as possible. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1944.)

157a. June 15, 1944. Resolution No. 105, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sale prices for livestock on the hoof and wholesale and retail prices for meat, bones, and internal organs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 17, 1944.)

157b. June 22, 1944. Resolution No. 27, National Transport Board, regulating distribution of 800 tires and 700 tubes for trucks and buses imported from Brazil by the Agricultural and Livestock Bank, and fixing maximum prices therefor. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 22, 1944.)

157c. June 23, 1944. Resolution No. 8, Ministry of the Treasury, authorizing importation of specified articles without previous permit. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 23, 1944.)

158a. June 27, 1944. Congressional Order recommending an immediate study of salaries of

government employees and an adjustment of those found incompatible with the higher cost of living. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 28, 1944.)

158b. June 28, 1944. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising foreigners of specified nationalities resident in the state of Táchira that in accordance with the official notice of December 23, 1943 (see 131c above) they are allowed a period of 180 days from this date in which to apply for identity certificates. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1944.)

158c. June 28, 1944. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising foreigners of other specified nationalities resident in the state of Táchira that the period of time prescribed in the Official Circular of December 23, 1943 (see 131d above) during which they must apply for identity certificates has been extended to September 30, 1944. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1944.)

158d. June 29, 1944. Resolution No. 28, National Transport Board, making provisions to regulate the transportation to Caracas of merchandise from the port of La Guaira. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 29, 1944.)

163. August 10, 1944. Resolution No. 106, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum prices for imported rice. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 10, 1944.)

164. August 10, 1944. Law, National Congress, stating that pearl fishing is to be considered a national industry and administered by the government, and making other regulations pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 14, 1944.)

165. August 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 174, creating an organizing committee for the Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture which will convene in Caracas on July 24, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 14, 1944.)

166. August 14, 1944. Official Circular, Ministry of the Interior, advising foreigners of specified nationalities resident in the state of Zulia that in accordance with the Official Circular of May 10, 1944 (see 154 above) they are allowed a 180 day period in which to apply for identity certificates. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

167. August 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 176, repealing Decrees Nos. 105 of May 18, 1942, 281 of November 9, 1942, and 142 of July 7, 1943 (see Venezuela 29, 76, and 110a, BULLETIN, October 1942, April 1943, and January 1944) which created the Import Control Com-

mission, the National Transport Board and the National Price Regulation Board; confirming and amplifying the restrictions on constitutional guarantees imposed in these decrees; creating the National Supply Commission which is divided into three sections for price, transport, and foreign trade control to take over the work of the abolished commissions; and defining the authority of this newly created entity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

168. August 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 177, cancelling the treasury grants to the Import Control Commission, the National Transport Board, and the National Price Regulation Board, which were abolished by Decree No. 176 of August 15, 1944 (see 167 above); and making a grant to the National Supply Commission, established by this same decree. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

169. August 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No.

178, confirming and amplifying restrictions on constitutional guarantees originally imposed in Decree No. 105 of May 18, 1942 (see Venezuela 29, BULLETIN, October 1942), which was repealed by Decree No. 176 of August 15, 1944 (see 167 above); and making new regulations to govern foreign trade. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

170. August 15, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, declaring specified food products, construction materials, clothing, fuels, raw materials, manufactured and medicinal products to be articles of prime necessity, in accordance with authority granted in Decree No. 176 of August 15, 1944 (see 167 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 15, 1944.)

171. August 25, 1944. Resolution No. 1-T, National Supply Commission, fixing itineraries for certain bus lines operating in Caracas. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1944.)

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

At its regular meeting on November 1, 1944 the Governing Board reelected the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, as Chairman for the year 1944-45 and named the Hon. Carlos Martins, Ambassador of Brazil, as Vice-president for the same period. (Because of ill health, Mr. Hull withdrew from the chairmanship on November 21, 1944. He was succeeded by the new Secretary of State, the Hon. Edward R. Stettinius, Jr.)

Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs

The first matter to be considered was a note addressed to the Chairman of the Board by the Embassy of Argentina asking him to

"inform the other American Governments that the Argentine Government deems necessary a Meeting of Foreign Ministers to consider the existing situation between the Argentine Republic and the other American nations." Attached to this note was a copy of a communication which the Argentine Government sent on the same date to the other American Governments.

After careful consideration of the matter and after hearing the representative of Argentina speak on the subject, the Governing Board voted unanimously to send the request to the Governments of the other American nations for their consideration.

The text of the above-mentioned note is as follows:

EMBASSY OF THE
ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

Washington, October 27, 1944

MR. CHAIRMAN:

Under the regulations for the Meetings of Consultation of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union receives requests for these meetings formulated by Governments that consider it necessary to have recourse to that procedure. In accordance with this practice, I have received instructions from my Government to request the Governing Board to inform the other American Governments that the Argentine Government deems necessary a Meeting of Foreign Ministers to consider the existing situation between the Argentine Republic and other American nations. Attached to this note is a copy of a communication which my Government has this date sent to the other American Governments. In the opinion of the Argentine Government this meeting should be held as early as possible, any topics which the other governments may consider it desirable to discuss being included in the program.

I beg to remain, my dear Mr. Chairman,

(S) RODOLFO GARCÍA ARIAS

*Envoy Extraordinary and Minister
Plenipotentiary*

HIS EXCELLENCY

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

HON. CORDELL HULL

Washington, D. C.

MEMORANDUM

The Argentine Government has been observing with concern the situation confronting the American concert of nations as a result of the attitude assumed by some of the governments toward the Argentine Republic, a situation that creates divisions incompatible with the traditional spirit of fraternity existing among peoples united by proximity, origin and ideals, and foments artificially a heretofore unknown atmosphere of disunity. Above all, it is a condition that implies the continuation of the suspicions which seriously threaten the spiritual solidarity of the nations of America.

In such a delicate situation, the Argentine Government, conscious of the righteousness of its position, reaffirms unreservedly its determination to safeguard the rights of the country which it

has the honor to represent. But that determination does not prevent it from again declaring that it does not close the door to an understanding based on honorable grounds. On July 26th the Argentine Foreign Ministry expressed its decision to maintain, in so far as it might be compatible with the dignity of the country, the conciliatory spirit which animated it. "In such circumstances," it added, "we can only wait, calmly and steadfastly, certain of the justness of our position and the rectitude of our actions. In thus defending our own rights we make the greatest contribution to the strengthening of juridical order as the universal and irreplaceable rule of conduct between States." Although similar conciliatory aspirations have been repeatedly expressed in other countries of America, the problem persists unchanged. Because of that fact the Argentine Government, as further evidence of its spirit of harmony, is addressing itself to your Government to explain the measures which in its judgment may even today assure the indispensable unity of the American family.

There is invoked against Argentina a presumed non-compliance with its commitments, an allegation that involves a problem of interest not to one country or group of countries, but to the entire Continent. The laborious development of the Pan American system has resulted in the establishment, for just such cases and as a formula of solidary action and a guarantee of equality of treatment, of the procedure of consultation. The most adequate instruments of this procedure are without doubt the consultative meetings of Foreign Ministers agreed upon at the Lima Conference, for to engage in systematic consultation outside of a conference would imply an alteration of the spirit of the agreement. It is therefore desirable to seek, within the framework of Pan American agreements, a satisfactory solution of the present misunderstanding. The traditional Argentine attitude in favor of the pacific and legal settlement of conflicts and the absence—at the present time—of any other international organization, justify this course.

For the reasons set forth above, the Argentine Government has the honor to inform you that it has this day requested the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to convene a Meeting of Foreign Ministers to consider the situation that has been created. At this Meeting all the American countries without exception would have an opportunity to express their points of

view. They would thus possess all the necessary elements to enable them to act with a full knowledge of the case. A correct formulation of the problem could take into consideration only the acts in the international conduct of a country and not the presumed intentions attributable to one or another of these acts. In making this proposal the Argentine Government is fully aware of the great importance of its action. In fact, it is not usual that a country should wish to consider, jointly with its peers, a fundamental aspect of its international conduct. But Argentina can do it without impairment of its dignity. In the first place this attitude conforms with its best diplomatic traditions of sincerity and frankness. As it has nothing to hide, it has nothing to fear. In the second place, the exceptional period through which the world is passing requires exceptional understanding and generosity of spirit. We are at the close of one of the most critical periods in the history of humanity. Peace and harmony, which must be its fruit, cannot be brought forth from division or rancor. The great and difficult problems which nations must solve require the whole-hearted collaboration of all. From that collaboration, Argentina, which fully appreciates the responsibilities of the moment, expects no selfish advantage from either the political or the material point of view. But it believes that no true and stable order can be established in the American community on the basis of the arbitrary exclusion of one of its members.

There is one point on which the Argentine Government desires that there should be no possibility of an erroneous interpretation. This refers to the effect of the present misunderstanding on the internal organization of Argentina. As has just been said, this Government would view most cordially any initiative tending to emphasize collaboration between the nations of the Continent, but it considers that in no case can the adoption of internal measures related to the juridical and institutional organization of the country be the subject of international negotiations. That would be a dangerous basis for the reciprocal respect that must exist between States.

In conclusion, the Argentine Government is confident that the fraternal spirit that inspires the foregoing observations will be shared by all the American Governments and that the Meeting which is proposed will serve to assure harmony and mutual respect among the nations of the Continent.

Postwar problems

The Board considered an extensive and detailed report of its Executive Committee on Postwar Problems and voted to transmit it to the Governments of the American republics for their observation and comment.

The report on Pan American postwar organization suggested changes intended to strengthen the system of inter-American relations in the period after the war. Formal action on the recommendations will be taken at the Ninth Pan American Conference or the next Meeting of Foreign Ministers of the American Republics.

Included in the report is a draft treaty to preserve the peace of the Western Hemisphere by setting up comprehensive machinery for the pacific settlement of international disputes. The project was prepared by the Inter-American Juridical Committee of Rio de Janeiro and consolidates in one instrument the provisions of existing treaties and conventions.

The report contemplates greater coordination in the practice of calling Pan American conferences by providing that they shall be convened in consultation with the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, which body shall prepare the program and regulations of each meeting. The International Conferences of American States would be held at five year intervals, and the meetings of Consultation of Foreign Ministers whenever situations of an emergency character arise. Permanent Pan American agencies which function in different countries and in widely separate fields would file periodic reports with the Governing Board, and the Pan American Union would prepare annual reviews of the work done by these offices.

Of the emergency agencies that have been created as a consequence of the war, some would be preserved even after hostilities have ceased. On the assumption that some

time will elapse before international order and stability are reestablished, the report recommends that the Inter-American Defense Board be continued after the war. The Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, which operates in the field of economic relations, would be made permanent, as would the Inter-American Juridical Committee or an equivalent body to function in the field of international law.

The Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense was established to deal with subversive activities. In view of its specific relation to the war, the report suggests that its continuation on a permanent basis may be unnecessary. It recommends, however, that the principle of its organization be preserved, so that it may be reconstituted in case of necessity.

Inter-American questions, the report assumes, will continue to be primarily the responsibility of members of the inter-American community. It emphasizes the genuine interest of the nations of the Western Hemisphere in the broader problem of world organization, and their desire that close relations be established between the inter-American and other international entities.

The report proposes that the Governments of the American Republics express their collective views on the fundamental principles that should underlie the establishment of a general international organization. It suggests that this might best be done at a meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, which would also afford an opportunity to determine the relation of the inter-American to the world organization.

Pan American News

Message of the President of Peru

IN his annual message to Congress, presented on July 28, 1944, Peru's President, Manuel Prado, gave a detailed report of the state of his nation, emphasizing the progress made during the year 1943. The space limitations of this article do not permit a full account of the accomplishment of the Peruvian ministries, but some of the outstanding achievements of the past year's program are here presented. Those who wish to acquire a more detailed knowledge of Peru as it was in 1943 will find the entire message printed in *El Comercio* of Lima for July 29, 1944.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Worship.
Peru raised its diplomatic missions in Eng-

land, Canada, Panama, Paraguay, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay to the rank of embassy, and placed the Peruvian mission in Haiti (formerly headed by a Chargé d'Affaires) in charge of a Minister Plenipotentiary. A diplomatic mission to the French National Committee of Liberation was set up when Peru recognized this body.

President Prado stressed the fact that Peru had been represented at all Allied conferences, had adhered to all agreements of the United Nations, and in general had given valuable assistance to the war effort.

The Department of Emigration and Immigration was reorganized to cope with the many problems in this field arising from the war.

Ministry of Public Education.—Innumerable volunteers and more than 13,000 teachers are taking part in the Peruvian campaign against illiteracy which was instituted by a Supreme Decree of March 4, 1943, and began on May 14, Teachers' Day. Under the Ministry of Education, a Coordinating Bureau to supervise this project was created and district and provincial committees are assisting in the gigantic effort. The plan includes instructing the illiterate in reading, writing, arithmetic, health preservation, and the elements of the country's history. A guide for teachers has been prepared and two volumes (the *Libro Peruano de Lectura* and the *Informativo Peruano*) have been given to the students. Lesson cards numbering 900,000 have been printed and the facilities of the National School of the Air are also being devoted to furthering the campaign.

Peru has been adding to its educational establishments. From 1940 until the date of this message, 2,935 primary schools were created. By a decree put into effect during 1943, primary teachers' salaries are to be higher, and an increase of 5 percent for each five years in service has been granted. A guarantee of permanent tenure was also granted to these teachers.

Problems relating to the education of the Peruvian child were discussed at the first meeting of the Peruvian Director of Public Education, the school inspectors, and the leaders of the country's Provincial Teachers Associations. This assembly was held in Lima from February 9 to 17, 1944.

On August 12, 1943, the President by Supreme Decree created the Leoncio Prado Military School, while in Celendín, Coracora and Paíta, three new boys' high schools were opened, and facilities were improved in a score of others. The rise in pay for the primary teachers was extended to apply to secondary school teachers, although mini-

mum salaries for those in the latter group who are graduates of the state normal schools and national universities had already been proclaimed. Scholarships to the number of 1,175 were granted to students in private high schools, of which there are 78 in the country.

The following table shows the amazing spread of education throughout Peru:

Progress of public education in Peru

	Kinder- gartens	Primary schools	Primary teachers	Second- ary schools	Budget for education (soles)
1940..	2	4,712	9,623	44	13,445,820
1944..	28	7,647	13,084	61	43,007,954

The opportunities offered to students in this branch of education were increased with the creation of a Central Polytechnic Institute and an Institute of Domestic Sciences and Useful Arts in the department of Junín, of the Metallurgy School in Oroya, and of various industrial sections annexed to high schools. A grant of 100,000,000 soles¹ was made to the National School of Engineers for research in industrial chemistry. The National Vocational School was completely reorganized.

Other activities carried out under the auspices of the Ministry of Education included the establishment of more rural normal schools (number in 1940—2, present number—19); and the inauguration of the building for the National Institute of Physical Education and of a special school for tuberculous students. Government sponsored X-ray examinations for tuberculosis and vaccination against diphtheria were extended to additional schools.

For study in the Aldedo National Academy of Music, 222 scholarships were granted, and a course in the theater was opened by government decree.

¹The exchange value of the sol on December 9, 1944, was \$.1575.

Work now being done to reconstruct the National Library was facilitated by the receipt of more than 15,000 volumes from foreign countries and of 5,000 volumes from Peruvian sources (excluding those deposited with the government in accordance with the printing laws), and gifts of money amounting to 55,000 soles.

Ministry of the Treasury and Commerce. The national budget for the fiscal year 1943 called for expenditures amounting to 318,550,000 soles, and 346,281,259 soles were received by the government, the largest part of this amount income from indirect taxes. The budget for 1944 provides for the expenditure of 377,269,000 soles. The commercial and savings banks increased the amount of their loans by 99,000,000 soles to a total of 491,000,000, as against 392,000,000 in 1943. Axis property to a value of 11,899,087 soles was confiscated and reverted to the government. Government revenues from imports in 1943 amounted to 141,395,472 soles, an increase of 19,950,092 soles over the previous year.

Law No. 9,929 authorized the amplification of the Internal Loan of 1940 by 50,000,000 soles, and on May 29, 1943, the government floated the first series of these bonds, amounting to 25,000,000 soles.

For a review of Peruvian foreign trade in 1943, see BULLETIN for September 1944.

Ministry of Development and Public Works.—Under the direction of this ministry, a great deal of work was accomplished on the national highway system during 1943. An additional 755 miles of road were completed; 121 miles of road improved; 30 miles of road asphalted; 311 miles of road hard-surfaced; and 5 miles of concrete or metal bridges built. The Huánuco-Pucallpa highway, a 525-mile road opening a direct route from the Pacific to the interior of Brazil and to the Atlantic ocean, was inaugurated in September 1943

(see BULLETIN for March 1944), and work was continued on seven secondary highways and many other roads.

The Peruvian railways, including both private and government-owned lines, transported 81,419,502 passengers in 1943 (21.75 percent increase from the previous year) and 3,271,440 tons of freight (2.4 percent increase), with an accompanying increase of 19.78 percent in revenue. The construction of a railway from Matarani to Oroya was begun.

In the Bureau of Mines and Petroleum, government control of coal exports was established. The Bureau is planning a geological map of the country, and in connection with the Santa Corporation's plan to develop the nation's iron and steel industry, an aerophotographic plan of the Marcona region, where rich coal and iron deposits are to be found, was made.

Petroleum production in 1943 reached 15,692,978 barrels, with a value of 124,338,364 soles, an increase of 7.25 percent over the preceding year. Mining production rose to 390,000,000 soles in value, an increase of 20,000,000 in comparison to 1943 production.

Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry.—The war-occasioned food shortages gave rise in Peru to an intensive campaign for food production, especially in the relatively undeveloped sierra region. It is hoped that the present year's activity will result in a 20 percent increase in the production of wheat, barley, oats, rye, potatoes, and other grains, and that future developments will result in a 40 or 50 percent increase in the production of food products. Legislation to this end included reduction by 20 percent of the area sown to cotton, thus making additional acreage available for the cultivation of edible crops, and required planting of suitable areas near highways to facilitate transportation. Increased pro-

duction of flax and pyrethrum was also instigated. The Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service, established under the auspices of the United States Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, has been functioning in Peru since June 1943, and the agreement was recently extended to last until August 15, 1945. This new branch of the Ministry of Agriculture is jointly maintained by the United States and Peruvian governments. Outstanding among its achievements are the founding of rural agencies in the Republic's principal zones to oversee the program, the construction of grain and tuber storage and fumigation facilities, and the planting of victory gardens throughout the country.

The formation of cooperatives, especially producers' cooperatives in Indian communities, is being promoted, and a Special Committee on Inter-Cooperative Relations has been set up.

The year 1943 brought the establishment of a Bureau of Animal Husbandry and a Bureau of Hunting and Fishing, and saw the initiation of a vast campaign for reforestation of the country's devastated areas (see BULLETIN for May 1944).

The President spoke of the shortages of wheat and flour, the satisfactory rice and sugar crops, and of the new evaporated and condensed milk industry, which in 1943 turned out 65.5 percent and 52.5 percent respectively of the country's requirements of these articles. It is hoped to begin production of powdered milk in 1945.

Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance.—Additional health services were made available to the public with the creation of the Bureau of Dental Inspection, the National Service of Maternal and Child Welfare, the Institute of Mental Hygiene for Children, and the installation of two prenatal and post-natal clinics. Construction was begun on the 1,000-bed National Anti-

Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Lima. The Inter-American Cooperative Public Health Service, continuing its work in the clinics and dispensaries whose establishment it fostered, will soon have three new clinics (in San Martín, Chimbote, and Iquitos) to add to its list.

The Government is continuing construction on many hospitals. The funds in the national budget appropriated to hospitals amounted to 18,702,215 soles.

Campaigns against communicable diseases were extended throughout the country.

Ministry of National Defense.—The President devoted an extensive portion of his message to a report on the state of the nation's armed services and the civilian defense organization. An office for the coordination of national transport was created. As for aviation, a group of Air Force Reserves was organized, a general Aeronautics Law was prepared, and a new national airport at Limatambo was opened.

Message of the President of Mexico

On September 1, 1944, General Manuel Ávila Camacho, President of Mexico, delivered his annual message to the National Congress. Some of the high lights of the message, which discussed at considerable length the activities of all government departments during the period September 1, 1943-August 31, 1944, are presented herewith in summary form.

Treasury and Public Credit.—Treasury receipts during the first six months of the year were 572,686,420 pesos,¹ an excess over budget estimates of 28 million pesos. An amendment to the income tax law providing for pay-as-you-go collections gave the Government additional current income which permitted the financing of the public works

¹The exchange value of the peso was \$.207 on December 9, 1944.

program without recourse to credit. Service was maintained on both national and foreign debt. The budget for the current year calls for public expenditures totaling 1,231,018,100 pesos, among which the following items are outstanding: irrigation works, 112,000,000 pesos; highway construction and maintenance, 125,000,000; railway construction, 24,000,000; dredging, shipyards, docks, and other port works, 13,000,000; construction of schools, barracks, airports, and other buildings, 28,000,000; maintenance of the army, 26,000,000; increases in the capital of the National Banks of Ejidal Credit and of Agricultural Credit, 20,000,000 and 4,000,000, respectively; water systems for small communities, 3,000,000; social security, 2,500,000; and debt service, 322,798,000. Instead of using its credit with the Bank of Mexico, the Government made every effort to cancel its obligations with the Bank; such cancellations amounted to 75,877,000 pesos during the period December 31, 1943-August 12, 1944.

Mexico, like the rest of the world, continued to feel the effects of the war and the Government had as its constant aim the mitigation of those effects as much as possible. Rising prices, increased money in circulation, and dislocation of foreign trade required and received close attention. At the same time, however, the Government sought to avoid any measures that would create obstacles to future development of the country, or more concretely, to the industrialization of its resources from which so much is hoped for the eventual economic and social advancement of the masses.

The money in circulation (bank deposits and money in the hands of the public) amounted, said the President, to 650,000,000 pesos, derived principally from acquisitions of gold and exchange by the Bank of Mexico which raised the resources of the Bank to an unprecedented figure. Where

credit was not destined directly for an increase in national production, industrial or agricultural, the Government consistently tried to avoid its excessive expansion and to that end first decreed that banks of the Federal District must keep in cash on hand 50 percent and banks outside the District 33 to 35 percent of their deposits, and second, took steps to stabilize the amount of credit extended by private banking institutions.

The Bank of Mexico continued to sell gold and in order to avoid international speculation the Government centralized through the Bank all gold imports and exports. Also, export duties on food products were increased, to avert possible scarcities within the country, and in some cases duty-free importation was authorized for certain articles whose domestic production was insufficient.

"It is not unjustified optimism," stated the President, "to affirm that we have passed the gravest stage of the state of emergency and that the hour has arrived to fix the general outlines of the economic and financial program which Mexico must develop in the period immediately following the war. A fundamental point of that program will be the use of the savings which the Mexican people have accumulated and which are represented by the gold reserve and exchange of the Bank of Mexico, the value of which was 1,382,546,000 pesos on July 31, 1944."

Department of National Economy.—Among the several grave complications in the general national economy, increased prices constituted the fundamental problem. To help combat the rise, prices were frozen on many foodstuffs and other products. In January 1944 price control was centered in the Treasury Department, a transfer which later required a like concentration in the same department of export control and supervision of organizations created for controlling market operations, such as the

National Distributing and Regulating Company.

Exports for 1943 totaled 1,130,000,000 and imports 910,000,000 pesos. The foreign demand for certain products, such as henequen, coffee, chicle, vanilla, hard fibers, and others strengthened the economy of some regions. To safeguard home consumption, regulations were issued governing the production and distribution of rubber and its manufactures and exports of various important products.

The index of industrial production rose, the greatest growth taking place in vegetable oils, cotton textiles, food products, and paper. In 1943, 61 new industrial enterprises began to operate and in the first six months of 1944, 63 more. These new production units represent a considerable investment of capital and a source of work which contributes appreciably to the economic welfare of the nation. Realizing that industrialization is the medium *par excellence* for achieving the economic development of the country and for raising the general standard of living, the Government created the Federal Industrial Development Commission to foster new enterprise and continued through the Federal Electric Power Commission to carry out the plan for electrification of regions appropriate for industrial activity.

As for mining activity, production of precious metals in 1943 totaled 2,700 tons valued at 291,000,000 pesos; of industrial metals, 634,000 tons, and of metalloids, 54,000 tons, valued at 32,300,000 pesos. After the end of 1943 a decrease was noted in mining production, caused principally by the tendency of foreign markets to reduce purchases, a factor which likewise provoked a decline in prices.

Agriculture and Agrarian Affairs.—The prime objective in this field was to produce at home the agricultural items needed for national consumption, with particular stress

on increased production of corn. Due to weather factors, the corn crop did not fulfill all hopes. The yield was 1,775,000 tons, but it was still necessary to import 73,785. As part of the campaign to increase production, a resolution of February 16, 1944, authorized any person freely to cultivate corn on unoccupied federal-owned lands.

During 1943 agricultural exports amounted to 373,500,000 pesos, the principal items being henequen, coffee, cattle, chicle, bananas, guayule rubber, candelilla wax, chickpeas, ixtle fiber, and cotton; agricultural imports were valued at more than 175,000,000 pesos and included mainly wheat, lard, crude rubber, wool, hides and skins, corn, hops, and malt.

The National Bank of Ejidal Credit made loans during the year totaling 103,000,000 pesos; repayments amounted to 87,000,000 pesos. Both figures represent a new high mark in the Bank's operations. The National Bank of Agricultural Credit extended credit to the sum of 22,000,000 pesos and made collections of more than a million.

The Government fostered the organization of machinery centers where ejidatarios and small farmers who do not own farm machinery could obtain it for use. Extension of irrigation projects was another point of interest. During the present Administration's first three years, over 642,000 acres of land have been irrigated or improved, a figure equal to the total land irrigated or improved by the National Irrigation Commission during its first fifteen years of existence, from 1926 to 1940.

The agrarian reform continues to occupy its basic position in the economic and social development of the nation. A special objective of recent months has been to relocate campesinos of densely populated areas in other more sparsely settled regions. Thus far 40 new rural population centers have been established under conditions favorable

to both the physical welfare and economic prosperity of the people concerned. From September 1, 1943 to August 31, 1944, 928 presidential resolutions were signed granting 17,304 campesinos close to 2,800,000 acres of land; water rights were granted benefiting over 39,000 acres; and 222,121 certificates of agrarian rights guaranteed security of possession to ejidatarios in 2,376 ejidos.

Petróleos Mexicanos.—Crude petroleum production totaled 26,000,000 barrels. The value of domestic sales was 233,000,000 pesos, and of shipments abroad 42,500,000 pesos, while the yield of federal petroleum taxes was approximately 70,000,000 pesos. Twenty-one new wells were sunk, of which ten proved to be productive; they raised the daily capacity of the industry by 17,600 barrels.

There was, however, some deficiency in the supply of gasoline and fuel oil, by reason of the disadvantageous location of some of the expropriated oil installations, railway traffic congestion and the deficiency of maritime transportation, and the great increase in national consumption occasioned by the country's industrial development. Improvement is expected with enlargement of the refinery at Azcapotzalco (Federal District), completion of the Poza Rica-Federal District pipeline, and the construction of seaboard storage plants at Acapulco, Punta Prieta, Punta Peñasco, Campeche, and Topolobampo.

Wages paid and loans made by the oil administration totaled 88,000,000 pesos; the oil industry supported 43 "Article 123" schools for children of workers; and daily minimum wages of the industry were increased from 5.95 to 9.74 pesos.

Communications and Public Works.—Among highways, the one from Mexico City to Suchiate, on the Guatemalan border, had priority over all others. Progress included paving of 109 miles, temporary surfacing of

37 miles, and other work to a total expenditure of 35,700,000 pesos. The road was officially opened as far as Oaxaca.

The Sonoita-Punta Peñasco highway was completed at a cost of 4,140,000 pesos and work was continued on the following: Mexico-Ciudad Juárez, Saltillo-Piedras Negras, Guadalajara-Nogales, Durango-Mazatlán, Tampico-Valles, Pátzcuaro-Tacámbaro, Pachuca-Huejutla, and a number of others scattered over the country from Baja California to Yucatan. Accomplishments of the federal-state highway program included 815 miles surveyed and marked out; 872 miles graded; 873 miles resurfaced; 420 miles paved; and 1,056 culverts, at a total expenditure of 129,670,000 pesos.

Reconstruction of the National Railways was actively carried forward, especially on the Mexico-Laredo and Córdoba-Suchiate lines. For repairs of rolling stock and ordinary maintenance, 46,433,000 pesos were spent. Through the cooperation of the United States Railway Mission in Mexico a number of railway workers were sent to the United States for technical study. Fifteen electric Diesel engines and 610 new cars were acquired; one narrow-gage locomotive was made at the Acámbaro shops; 51 cars were manufactured; and enlargements and repairs were undertaken in the shops at Nonoalco (Federal District) and Aguascalientes, a steel treatment plant and blast furnace having been installed in the latter.

Heavy traffic brought an increase in railway receipts, but unfortunately increased expenditures surpassed receipts. In spite of this, however, it was possible to create some reserves for further improvements and new construction.

With the arrival of the Southeastern Railway at the Mexcalapa river, the banana and cattle region of Tabasco was opened to traffic and markets.

The present extension of air lines in

Mexico covers 37,593 miles. Nine new airports were established and several existing ones enlarged during the year. There are now nineteen schools of aviation.

Public Education.—The year's two outstanding developments were the school construction program (see BULLETIN, August 1944, p. 471) and the anti-illiteracy campaign law of August 21, 1944.

The country now has 16,864 public schools, with 35,827 teachers and an attendance of 1,887,906 children and 133,993 adults—the highest figures in the history of Mexican education.

The joint federal-state-private initiative school construction program covering the years 1944-46 envisions a great increase in the number of schools with, naturally, a consequent increase in the number of pupils. The Government's financial share of the program is 30,000,000 pesos, to be spread over three years; private enterprise and individuals have already donated 5,859,210 pesos; and 18 of the 28 states and one of the two territories have already made available 12,167,000 pesos. Construction of many new schools in various parts of the country has been started and some have already opened their doors.

The anti-illiteracy campaign law of August 21, 1944, calls upon all Mexicans between the ages of 18 and 60 who know how to read and write Spanish to teach at least one illiterate person in the Republic how to read and write. The campaign is to have three stages: organization, from August 1944 to February 28, 1945; teaching, March 1, 1945–February 28, 1946; review and appraisal of results, March 1, 1946–May 31, 1946. The Department of Education was charged by the law with printing 10,000,000 cards containing simple instructions for teachers and necessary exercises for students; for some of the Indian groups, bilingual cards will be printed. Professional

teachers are asked to assist and advise the amateurs.

Other progress in education included initiation of the construction of the Superior Normal School with a capacity for 1,000 students; transfer of the pre-vocational schools to the supervision of the Polytechnic Institute, with a view to converting them gradually from secondary to true vocational schools; establishment of contacts between the Department of Education and industry and labor unions, for the initiation of a program of technical education through the foundation in 1945 of regional technical centers; opening of nine new secondary night schools for adults; reorganization of the schools of practical agriculture; publication of the Popular Encyclopedic Library, issued in small weekly 25-centavo volumes containing selections from classical, historical, and literary works, designed to bring good reading within reach of the masses; and, in the field of higher education, a 500,000-peso increase in the 3,500,000 budget of the National University and an allocation of 1,440,000 pesos as aid to state institutes of higher education.

Health and Welfare.—In October 1943 the two former Departments of Public Health and of Social Welfare were consolidated into the new Department of Health and Welfare, with the object of securing greater coordination in government care for the health of the nation and the ministrations of aid to the sick, the needy, and the incapacitated. The new Department through the year was able to improve and broaden its services and at the same time to achieve an appreciable reduction in administrative expenses. Outside the capital, the Department had charge of 798 offices, with a total budget of 20,528,000 pesos; the federal share was 13,228,000 pesos, the remainder being contributed by state governments, ejidal cooperatives, and private institutions.

A general improvement in health was registered in the country. Campaigns against various endemic, contagious, and infectious diseases were continued; the 20 anti-leprosy dispensaries and the one leprosarium improved their operation through unification and coordination of their work. The installation of a central cancer dispensary was started which, together with the cancer treatment division of the General Hospital, will improve efforts to combat that disease. The National Institute of Cardiology was inaugurated on April 18, 1944. Health centers and maternal and child welfare stations in operation totaled 256.

Work was completed on water systems for 21 towns, continued in 26 towns, and started in 7 others, while studies and plans for such installations were completed for 62 more. Eighteen urban and rural sanitation projects were completed and 20 more got under way in as many towns.

In the Federal District 6,000 free breakfasts were served daily during the past year; three family dining rooms, which offer balanced meals to poor working families at cost or less, are now taking care of 2,000 persons daily; and three university dining rooms provide daily food to over 400 needy university students.

Labor and Social Security.—To avoid any disruption in production, constant efforts were made to solve labor disputes with the greatest possible rapidity, with due respect to the rights of workers. A number of important labor problems were settled satisfactorily, of which the outstanding ones involved the railway, mining, and textile unions.

Various measures were adopted to maintain equilibrium between wages and the increased cost of living, one such step having been the law providing for emergency wage increases for low-paid workers.

The number of consumer cooperatives in-

creased to 163, with a total membership of 120,000 and a capital of 5,500,000 pesos.

The social security program went into effect in the Federal District in January 1944, and during the year one decree and three regulations were issued to improve application of the law. By July 1944, 500,000 workers and their families had received medical attention under the plan. Three clinics, 117 consulting offices, and two sanitariums were in operation, and a maternity center and five hospital units are under construction.

National Defense.—Following established lines for the organization and use of the nation's armed forces, the Department of National Defense worked particularly for consolidation and organization of new forces. Particularly worthy of note is the fact that Mexican Air Squadron 201, comprising 300 men, all volunteers, left Mexico in July for training in the United States. The men include pilots, co-pilots, machine gunners, radio operators, and mechanics, and upon completion of their training at Randolph Field and other United States aviation schools, they will take their place as Mexico's first combat squadron, ready to go into action wherever needed on the world's battlefronts.

Foreign Affairs.—"Our international policy," said the President, "continues to gain its inspiration from postulates that have permitted Mexico to reach a high place in the estimation of other countries. Our collaboration with the United Nations has added to the stature of Mexico's personality abroad and has contributed to the internal development of the Republic."

Full and steadfast cooperation with the United Nations and in all matters concerning the defense and solidarity of the American Continent marked the country's course of action throughout the year. Mexican delegates participated in all inter-American and United Nations conferences that took place.

Mexican-United States relations held to the plane of cordiality and cooperation that has characterized them in recent years, and the President stressed the several Mexican-United States agreements entered into and the joint commissions established for the furtherance of cooperation between the two nations in various lines of activity.

Attention was given, too, to strengthening relationships in other parts of the world. Mexico's diplomatic representation in Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China was raised to embassy rank. Relations between Mexico and Great Britain noticeably improved. The President mentioned the fact that on June 15, 1944, Prime Minister Churchill paid a visit to the Mexican Embassy in London and delivered an address there. Mexican payments to the British Government on claims of British subjects were delivered for the year 1944 and the President expressed the hope that the next few months would see an agreement between the two governments on oil expropriations, similar to that which was made with the United States.

Closing his message with a general synthesis of the ideas and ideals that guided the Government during the year, the President said: "The labors now demanded of us, in order that we may arrive at the peace, not in the position of petitioners but rather as modest but efficacious participants in the rebuilding of the world, coincide socially and politically with the path of our Revolution; they confirm how far our destiny is associated with the triumph of the democratic ideal which we cherish. * * * Since the last time I appeared before you, many things have disturbed us. Fortunately none of them has made us stop thinking of Mexico, living for Mexico, believing in Mexico. May this thought, this faith, this faith, this will to serve be the watchword of our solidarity, our spirit, and our action."

Publications of the Pan American Union, July—December 1944

During the last six months of 1944, the Pan American Union added to its list of publications some fifty books, pamphlets and leaflets designed to offer specialized information in the Pan American field. These publications may be obtained by writing to the Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C. An annual payment of \$20.00 will bring the subscriber a copy of each publication issued for distribution in Spanish, English and Portuguese during the twelve months following the date when his order is received. There is a special rate of \$15.00 per year for publications distributed in English only, and of \$10.00 per year for publications distributed in Spanish and Portuguese. The following books and pamphlets were prepared by various divisions from July through December 1944:

COUNSELOR'S OFFICE:

Pan American Postwar Organization, report of the Executive Committee on Postwar Problems of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.¹

The Literature of Latin America, a second edition of Vol. I of the Series on Literature-Art-Music.¹

The Art of Latin America, a second edition of Vol. II of the same series.¹

Music in Latin America, a second edition of Vol. III of the same series.¹

DIVISION OF ECONOMIC INFORMATION AND STATISTICS:

Commercial Pan America

Spanish edition of the June 1944 number—*Perspectiva Económica Inmediata y Futura en Las Antillas—Parte II, República Dominicana; Parte III, Haiti.*²

English and Spanish editions of the July-August 1944 number—*Growth of Industry and Aviation in Mexico, 1929-1942, and Desarrollo Industrial y Aéreo en México de 1929 a 1942.*³

English and Spanish editions of the Septem-

¹ \$25. ² \$10. ³ \$20.

ber-October 1944 number—*Volume I, The Annual Economic Survey of Latin America, 1942*, and *Volumen I, Estudio Económico Anual de la América Latina, Año de 1942*.³

EDITORIAL DIVISION:

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, English, Spanish and Portuguese editions, July through December 1944.

A Young Man's Chances in the Latin American Field, James S. Carson, reprint from the March 1944 *Bulletin*.⁶

DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION:

Agriculture in Nicaragua, in the English series on Agriculture.⁴

Agricultura en los Estados Unidos, in the Spanish series on Agriculture.⁴

Alimentación del Ganado en los Trópicos, by Jorge de Alba, in the same series.²

DIVISION OF SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS:

American Nations set—

Nicaragua, revised reprint.⁵

Costa Rica, revised reprint.⁵

DIVISION OF LABOR AND SOCIAL WELFARE:

Cooperativas de Crédito.⁶

La Educación Obrera en los Estados Unidos.⁶

Noticias de la Oficina de Información Obrera y Social, No. 20.⁶

TRAVEL DIVISION:

Ports and Harbors of Brazil—

Belém do Pará, revised reprint.⁵

Recife, revised reprint.⁵

Holidays and Festivals in Central America and Panama, No. 2 in the Holidays and Festivals Series, revised reprint.⁵

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY:

Latin American Writers in English Translation, compiled by Willis Knapp Jones, No. 30 in the Bibliographic Series, price \$1.00.

Pan American Bookshelf, Nos. 7-12, July through December, 1944. (Annotations in Spanish and English.)²

JURIDICAL DIVISION:

Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions, revised to July 1, 1944. (A chart with

text in English, Spanish, Portuguese, and French.)⁶

Treaties and Conventions signed at the Second International Conference of American States held at Mexico City, 1901-1902, No. 17 in the Law and Treaty Series, with text in English, Spanish, Portuguese and French.⁶

Recommendation for the Immediate Establishment of a Preliminary International Organization, formulated by the Inter-American Juridical Committee of Rio de Janeiro.⁶

DIVISION OF INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION:

Hacia la Salud por la Escuela, No. 125 in the Spanish Education Series.²

A Saúde pela Escola, No. 82 in the Portuguese Education Series.²

Points of View Series—

On Being Good Neighbors, by Mariano Picón Salas, No. 8 in the English Series.²

¿Frustrados o Libres? by Charles Morris, No. 7 in the Spanish Series.²

Frustrados o Livres? by Charles Morris, No. 7 in the Portuguese Series.²

Higher Education in Latin America, Volume II, *Chile*.³

Journals Dealing with the Natural, Physical and Mathematical Sciences in Latin America.⁷

Latin American University Journals and Serial Publications.⁷

Correo, No. 29.²

Panorama, No. 25.

Mimeographed leaflets—

Teaching Positions in Latin America

Flag of the Americas

Spanish-American Song and Game Books for Use in Schools

A Few Suggestions for Class Banquets and Luncheons with a Pan American Theme

Some References on Latin America for the General Reader

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Christmas in Latin America. (Two articles from the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.)

² \$.10. ³ \$.20. ⁴ \$.15. ⁵ \$.05.

⁶ Prices furnished on request. ⁷ \$.50. * Free.

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Annual subscription rates in all countries of the Pan American Union: English edition, \$1.50; Spanish edition, \$1.00; Portuguese edition, \$1.00; single copies, any edition, 15 cents each (prior to 1935, 25 cents each). An additional charge of 75 cents per year is made on each edition for subscriptions in countries outside the Pan American Union

THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF THE INTER-AMERICAN SYSTEM—10 cents

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AMERICAN NATIONS AND CAPITALS (illustrated)—5 cents each

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SERIES FOR YOUNG READERS (illustrated)—5 cents each

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MUSIC SERIES

Partial List of Latin American Music Obtainable in the United States, \$0.10; List of Recordings of Latin American Songs and Dances, \$0.30; Notes on the History of Music Exchange between the Americas before 1940, by Eugenio Pereira Salas, \$0.25; The Music of Argentina, by Albert T. Luper, \$0.20; The Music of Brazil, by Albert T. Luper, \$0.25; Carlos Chávez; Catalog of his Works, \$0.50

FOREIGN TRADE SERIES—10 cents each

Latest foreign trade statistics of the Latin American Republics, compiled from official sources

COMMERCIAL PAN AMERICA—\$1.00 a year (mimeographed)

PANORAMA—10 cents a copy

A quarterly mimeographed publication on matters of interest in inter-American intellectual cooperation.

THE PAN AMERICAN BOOKSHELF—\$1.00 a year

A monthly annotated list of the books received in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union

BIBLIOGRAPHIC SERIES

Bibliographies on Pan American topics, such as Inter-American Relations, History, and Description, Children's Books on Latin America, Hemisphere Defense, Bookstores and Publishers in Latin America, Material in English on Latin American Literature, and other topics

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 54 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs

are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 120,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.



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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

"This building is a confession of faith, a covenant of fraternal duty, a declaration of allegiance to an ideal."—ELIHU ROOT.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 2



FEBRUARY 1945

Pan American Day—April 14, 1945

Foreword

L. S. ROWE

Director General, Pan American Union

AT this critical period in the history of humanity, Pan American Day is an occasion for calling to mind the contribution of the American republics to good understanding among nations.

The countries of the Western Hemisphere have a well developed system of international relations, with clearly defined principles and established agencies through which to function. This system has proved its worth on more than one occasion, and never more effectively than in the present world crisis. Because inter-American cooperation is the result of a long evolutionary process, and because it has always remained flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances, the spirit in which it was conceived and developed has never been crushed by the dead weight of outworn procedure. The example of unity of purpose and policy set

by our republics, therefore, must necessarily have a far-reaching influence on the prospective world organization for peace that is now uppermost in men's minds everywhere.

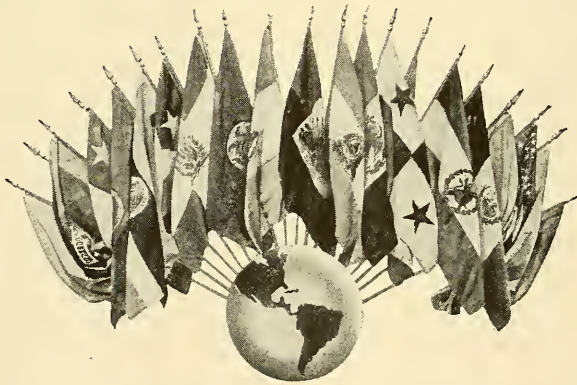
Particularly significant has been the constructive interpretation given to the term "peace" in the American Republics. Peace to them is something far greater than the mere absence of conflict. It involves positive cooperation and mutual helpfulness in the solution of social and economic problems. In the field of public health, for example, we have seen great advances during recent years because the American Republics have placed at one another's disposal their experience as well as their technical talent. The level of public health has thus been raised, the standard of living improved, and the productive capacity of the people

markedly increased. This mutual helpfulness, the outstanding characteristic of the Pan American system, must be the cornerstone of any world system if peace and prosperity are to be assured.

There are two other basic principles that the American Republics have demonstrated to be of vital importance to the preservation of peace. They have accepted joint responsibility for the maintenance of the peace of the Western Hemisphere, and have formally declared that a menace to

the peace of any one of the Republics is to be regarded as a menace to all, and hence reason for collective action. If peace is to be maintained, these principles of solidarity must be practiced throughout the world.

Thus in 1945 Pan American Day comes at a time when the American republics are setting an example of which their citizens have every reason to feel proud. The New World is pointing the way that Europe, Asia, and Africa must travel if civilization is to be preserved.



Elihu Root's Contribution to Pan Americanism

GEORGE A. FINCH

*Director, Division of International Law, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace;
Editor-in-Chief, American Journal of International Law*

IN a retrospective review of the policy usually referred to in North America as the Latin American policy of the United States, the name of Elihu Root stands for sympathy and understanding as the foundation of practical and successful statesmanship. For the first time in years, his appointment to the Cabinet placed some one who was *simpático* in charge of the relations between the Colossus of the North and its then distrustful and suspicious neighbors of the South. Even Mr. Blaine's policy of Pan Americanism inaugurated in 1889 Mr. Root regarded as in advance of the times. However, he believed that "Now the time has come; both North and South America have grown up to Blaine's policy."¹ Mr. Root proceeded to act upon that belief.

When, following the Spanish-American War, President McKinley found the United States suddenly transformed from an isolated continental nation to a world power confronted with colonial problems in which the Government lacked the benefit of any previous experience, he decided that he wanted a lawyer for the position of Secretary of War to direct the government of the islands given up by Spain in the treaty of peace signed at Paris on December 10, 1898. It will be recalled that by that treaty Spain relinquished her sovereignty over Cuba and ceded to the

United States Puerto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, and the Philippines and other islands in the Pacific Ocean.

This cabinet post with its novel responsibilities the President offered to Elihu Root, the leader of the New York Bar. Mr. Root had a lucrative law practice and was reluctant to accept the position for professional as well as family reasons. However, as he later related, "There was but one answer to make, and so I went to perform a lawyer's duty upon the call of the greatest of all our clients, the Government of our country."² After taking the oath of office on August 1, 1899, Mr. Root wrote to his wife: "When I consider the power now placed in my hands and its tremendous effect on the lives of millions of poor creatures who are looking to this country for civilization and freedom and the blessings of law and order, the little sacrifices I am making seem small indeed."³

The conditions under which the new Secretary of War, North American in culture, education, and experience, and steeped in Anglo-Saxon law, started upon his uncharted course of directing the government of the Spanish islands required a good knowledge of the principles of colonial government, sympathetic understanding of the Latin peoples and of their institutions whose destinies fate had placed in his hands, and a high de-

¹ "Addresses on Government and Citizenship by Elihu Root." Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1916, pp. 503-504.

² "Elihu Root." Authorized biography by Philip C. Jessup. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1938. Vol. I, pp. 222-223.

The centenary of Elihu Root's birth is February 15, 1945.

³ "Latin America and the United States. Addresses by Elihu Root." Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1917, pp. 252-253

gree of political acumen to steer between the extremes of criticism and pressure from the Imperialist and Anti-Imperialist parties which divided the United States at that time. The American army of liberation was in occupation of Cuba and there were annexationists in the United States strongly opposed to leaving the government and control of the island to its people in accordance with the joint resolution of Congress of April 20, 1898, authorizing armed intervention in behalf of Cuban freedom. For six months hostilities had been in progress in the Philippine Islands between the American forces and the natives; and Puerto Rico was in a state of dire distress. Within less than two years after Mr. Root undertook his responsibilities, the American army had been withdrawn from Cuba, the Cuban flag was raised over Habana, and the first constitutionally elected President of the Republic of Cuba was inaugurated in the National Palace in that capital on May 20, 1901; the insurrection in the Philippines had been suppressed and, by the considerate treatment of the Filipino leaders, they had been converted into friends of the United States; and the work of preparing the people of Puerto Rico and the Philippines for self-government had been started.

Mr. Root's views on the treatment to be accorded to the inhabitants of the new island possessions of the United States were expressed in his first annual report as Secretary of War dated November 29, 1899, in which he said, "The people of the ceded islands have acquired a moral right to be treated by the United States in accordance with the underlying principles of justice and freedom which we have declared in our Constitution, and which are the essential safeguards of every individual against the powers of government, not because those provisions were enacted for them, but because they are essential limitations inherent in the very existence

of the American Government." Referring specifically to the people of Puerto Rico, he declared that they "are entitled to demand that they shall not be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, that private property shall not be taken for public use without compensation, that no law shall be passed impairing the obligations of contracts, etc." These rights, he stated, have been declared by the United States to belong to all men, observance of them is a part of the nature of our Government, and "it is impossible that there should be any delegation of power by the people of the United States to any legislative, executive, or judicial officer which should carry the right to violate these rules toward anyone anywhere."⁴ This declaration of the rights of man under the American form of government antedated by nearly half a century the declaration of the Four Freedoms throughout the world for which the United Nations are now fighting. In directing the government of the Spanish islands, which had codes of their own based on the civil law, it was far from the intention of Mr. Root to impose upon them the common law of the Anglo-Saxon world. This was plainly indicated in the instructions to the Philippine Commission prepared by Secretary Root and signed by President McKinley on April 7, 1900. With the proviso that the Filipinos should observe the individual guarantees found in the American Bill of Rights, the Commission was instructed:

In all the forms of government and administrative provisions which they are authorized to prescribe, the Commission should bear in mind that the government which they are establishing is designed not for our satisfaction, or for the expression of our theoretical views, but for the happiness, peace and prosperity of the people of the Philippine Islands, and the measures adopted should be made to conform to their customs, their

⁴ "The Military and Colonial Policy of the United States. Addresses and Reports by Elihu Root." Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1916, p. 162.

habits, and even their prejudices, to the fullest extent consistent with the accomplishment of the indispensable requisites of just and effective government.⁵

In the summer of 1903 Theodore Roosevelt, who had succeeded to the Presidency after the assassination of President McKinley in September 1901, drafted Mr. Root to serve as an American commissioner on the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal. He spent several months in London on this mission, and upon his return in November he learned of the events that had recently taken place in Panama in his absence, which were epitomized in President Roosevelt's boast that he "took Panama." Mr. Root's biographer asserts that he had no part in the matter, and although he made a lawyerlike defense of the President's action, "had he been consulted, his ingenious legal mind would probably have suggested a less controversial method of accomplishing what Roosevelt had in mind."⁶ A few months later, on February 1, 1904, Mr. Root retired from the office of Secretary of War in accordance with the resignation which he had placed in the President's hands before going on the mission to London. He returned to New York and reentered the practice of the law.

Upon the death of Secretary of State John Hay in the summer of 1905, Mr. Root was invited by President Roosevelt to reenter the cabinet as Mr. Hay's successor, which he did on July 19, 1905. Mr. Hay, who had long wished to retire because of his health, insisted that Mr. Root should take his place and President Roosevelt wrote to a friend that he wished Mr. Root as Secretary of State "primarily because I think that in all the country he is the best man for the position. . . ."⁷

As was the case six years before when he

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 48; also Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 354-356.

⁶ Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 402-403.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 448.

became Secretary of War, Mr. Root as Secretary of State inherited a number of difficult problems growing out of the relations of the United States with countries to the South, especially in the Caribbean area. An understanding of the policy of the United States in this area at that time is impossible without taking into consideration the determination of the United States to construct and protect the Isthmian Canal. The fifteen-thousand-mile voyage of the battleship *Oregon*, requiring 68 days from the northern Pacific Coast of the United States via the Straits of Magellan to take part in the Battle of Santiago, Cuba, against the Spanish fleet, gave a dramatic demonstration of the vital necessity of a more accessible way of transferring ships between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans for the defense of the nation. German envy of the expansion of the United States had assumed a threatening attitude at the Battle of Manila Bay. Suspicion that Germany was looking for naval bases that might menace the Panama Canal was Mr. Root's justification for the Platt Amendment to the Cuban Constitution, of which he was the author. "You cannot understand the Platt Amendment unless you know something about the character of Kaiser Wilhelm II," Mr. Root later wrote to his biographer.⁸ The well-known historian Samuel Flagg Bemis states: "Nowhere is the real purpose of the United States in the War of 1898 with Spain stated more frankly and concisely than in the Platt Amendment reserving to the United States the right to intervene in Cuba to protect life, property and individual liberty, to preserve the independence of the island, and to facilitate the defense of the United States, including naval bases."⁹ Despite the many criticisms of the Platt Amendment, Mr. Root never deviated from the gloss which he

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 314.

⁹ "The Latin American Policy of the United States." New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1943, p. 138.

placed upon it at the time of its adoption, "that it did not authorize intermeddling or interference with the affairs of the Cuban Government." His biographer states that "Root's interpretations were perfectly clear, his intentions were perfectly honest, but he could not control his successors in the councils of the United States Government. It would have been better for Cuba and for the United States if he could have done so."¹⁰ When Secretary Root returned from his trip to South America in the summer of 1906 and learned of the intervention in Cuba during his absence he "walked up and down in his office in the State Department, saying 'They have killed my baby.'"¹¹ Years later when the need had passed for the Platt Amendment in the Caribbean defense policy of the United States, it was abrogated by mutual agreement of the two governments in the treaty of May 29, 1934.

Another trying situation which the new Secretary of State inherited concerned the Dominican Republic. President Theodore Roosevelt and Secretary of State John Hay had come to an impasse with the United States Senate over their attempt to establish a financial receivership in that country, and in his search for arguments to impress the Senate with the necessity of consenting to the arrangement, President Roosevelt had used in a message to Congress expressions concerning supposed police powers devolving upon the United States in the Western Hemisphere as a corollary of the Monroe Doctrine. This immediately and naturally created resentment throughout Latin America. Unlike his predecessor, Mr. Root had a reputation for getting along with the Senate. Indeed, shortly after becoming Secretary of State he was unanimously invited by the Committee on Foreign Relations to at-

¹⁰ Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 325.

¹¹ Eye-witness account of James Brown Scott, Secretary Root's faithful Solicitor. *Proceedings of American Society of International Law*, 1937, p. 6.



ELIHU ROOT

February 15, 1845—February 7, 1937.

tend its meetings whenever he wished to do so, and he made it his usual practice to attend the Committee's weekly meetings. After examining the dossier concerning the Dominican Republic, Secretary Root laid all of the official correspondence before the Senate Committee and, after ascertaining their objections to the treaty, offered certain amendments which were accepted, and the treaty was duly ratified and went into effect on July 8, 1907.¹² Again, as in the case of Cuba, Mr. Root in his handling of the Dominican problem had to contend with annexationist sentiment in the United States. A Senator actually introduced a resolution of annexation, which Mr. Root promptly denounced as part of a plot. The treaty which

¹² Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 544-548.

he succeeded in having ratified conferred no benefit but placed a heavy burden upon the United States, which was "trying to perform the office of friendship and discharge the duty of good neighborhood toward Santo Domingo." With a vision that foresaw the future need of a good-neighbor policy throughout the whole of the Western Hemisphere, Mr. Root added: "Our treatment of Santo Domingo, like our treatment of Cuba, is but a part of a great policy which shall in the years to come determine the relations of this vast country, with its wealth and enterprise, to the millions of men and women and the countless millions of trade and treasure of the great world to the south."¹³ Thus were laid by Elihu Root some forty years ago the firm foundations of the good-neighbor policy proclaimed anew by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1933 and faithfully practiced by his great Secretary of State Cordell Hull.

The consequences of the separation of Panama from Colombia, for which we have seen Mr. Root was in no way responsible, continued to require the attention of the Department of State for many years. There were political disturbances in Panama with the contending factions appealing to the United States for intervention. Mr. Root turned a deaf ear to such appeals and held firmly, as he had done in the case of Cuba, that the treaty with Panama conferred upon the United States no right or duty to interfere in the internal affairs of the Republic. Then there was the question of the recognition of the independence of Panama by Colombia, and the financial settlements to be made among the three parties to the triangle. Secretary Root because of ill health was able to participate to a limited extent only in these negotiations.

Venezuela was another Caribbean country

¹³ *"Latin America and the United States," loc. cit., p. 276.*

whose unhappy relations with some of the great European powers and later with the United States gave cause for grave concern in Washington. In 1902, while Mr. Root was Secretary of War, Germany, Great Britain and Italy had blockaded Venezuelan ports to enforce arbitration of claims of their nationals against the Venezuelan Government. The first matter which required Mr. Root's attention as Secretary of State was the refusal of the Government of Venezuela to consider five American claims for damages in that country. The new Secretary of State reviewed each case, not as a lawyer representing the Government of the United States as his client, but as a judge deciding between contesting parties. "We must be careful," he remarked to his Solicitor who was working with him on the cases, "especially so in our relations with the smaller states, that we never propose a settlement which we would not be willing to accept if the situation were reversed." Venezuela's continued obstinacy in refusing to consider Mr. Root's well-reasoned proposals of settlement caused him to break off diplomatic relations which were not resumed until a new president assumed office in Venezuela some eighteen months later. With good will on both sides, four of the five claims were settled through diplomatic channels and the fifth was submitted to arbitration at The Hague. The arbitration agreement was signed after Mr. Root had left office, and upon hearing of it he wrote to his friend Andrew Carnegie that he was very much gratified "because one of the most difficult things I have had to do in the State Department has been to stand up against the pressure to bulldoze Venezuela."¹⁴

Unsettled political conditions in Central America also required Mr. Root's constant attention while he was Secretary of State. Attempts by the President of Nicaragua to force a union of the five republics resulted

¹⁴ *Jessup, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 499.*

in the outbreak of hostilities between some of them on several occasions. These countries, Mr. Root asserted, were put in the "front yard of the United States" by the building of the Panama Canal, and he believed that "the success of their appeal to us to act the part of a friend and neighbor in helping them reconcile their differences may be of great value in the future."¹⁵ He seemed to favor a voluntary union as a means of establishing stable government in Central America, but he was opposed to armed intervention or even to the United States acting diplomatically alone. He accordingly enlisted the aid of the Government of Mexico, which readily responded. After several unsuccessful attempts, through the joint mediation of the two governments a Central American Conference was held at Washington in 1907. Although a Central American union was not agreed upon, a number of helpful treaties were signed. One of them provided that the contracting parties "shall not recognize any other government which may come into power in any of the five Republics as a consequence of a *coup d'état*, or of a revolution against the recognized government, so long as the freely elected representatives of the people thereof have not constitutionally reorganized the country." Another of the treaties of 1907 established the Central American Court of Justice. Mr. Root is generally credited with suggesting this court and aiding in its establishment.¹⁶ It embodied his conception of a true international court which he sought to have established at The Hague in his instructions given earlier the same year to the American delegates to the Second Hague Conference.¹⁷ Andrew Carnegie was so pleased that he gave \$100,000 to provide a

home for the court in Costa Rica and duplicated the gift when the building was destroyed by earthquake in 1910.¹⁸

Throughout the formulation of his Caribbean policy, Secretary Root was confronted time and again with the relation of that policy to the Monroe Doctrine, and his statements on this question contained notable contributions to the clarification of the true meaning of that doctrine. He insisted that President Monroe's message to Congress of December 2, 1823, was a declaration of policy by the Government of the United States based upon its right of self-protection under international law. However, the doctrine itself was not an accepted principle of international law and it was not therefore to be considered as binding upon other governments which refused to accept it. It was for this reason he had incorporated a treaty right of intervention by the United States to protect its interests in Cuba and Panama in case they were ever threatened by any foreign Power. He maintained that the Monroe Doctrine did not infringe upon the sovereignty of any of the American States and that their relations with non-American States did not come within the purpose of the Doctrine so long as the permanent occupation of American territory by a non-American Power was not involved. Notwithstanding the so-called Roosevelt corollary justifying the use of the Big Stick to keep order in America so as to avoid European intervention, the European Powers were permitted to intervene forcibly in Venezuela in 1902 on their assurance that no permanent occupation of territory would take place, and Mr. Root applied the same interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine when France planned to use forcible measures against Venezuela in 1905.¹⁹

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 513.

¹⁶ See Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 511, and J. B. Scott, *Proceedings of American Society of International Law*, 1907, p. 11.

¹⁷ See *post*, p. 70.

¹⁸ "Manual of the Public Benefactions of Andrew Carnegie," Washington, 1919, p. 281.

¹⁹ Jessup, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 495-497.

To clear up misunderstandings throughout Latin America on the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine growing out of the recent policies of the United States was one of the principal motives of Mr. Root in undertaking his tour of South America in the summer and fall of 1906. The keynote of his trip was delivered before a special session of the Third Pan American Conference which opened at Rio de Janeiro on July 31 of that year. In the course of this notable address, Mr. Root delivered the following famous declaration of the policy of the United States in the Western Hemisphere:

We wish for no victories but those of peace; for no territory except our own; for no sovereignty except the sovereignty over ourselves. We deem the independence and equal rights of the smallest and weakest member of the family of nations entitled to as much respect as those of the greatest empire; and we deem the observance of that respect the chief guaranty of the weak against the oppression of the strong. We neither claim nor desire any rights or privileges or powers that we do not freely concede to every American republic. We wish to increase our prosperity, to expand our trade, to grow in wealth, in wisdom, and in spirit; but our conception of the true way to accomplish this is not to pull down others and profit by their ruin, but to help all friends to a common prosperity and a common growth, that we may all become greater and stronger together.²⁰

Elihu Root was not merely, in the words of Professor Bemis, "the original temperer of North American imperialism,"²¹ but he was in addition the architect of the new place his country was destined to occupy as a Great Power in the family of nations of the twentieth century.

Other questions of a more general nature involving the nations of the Western Hemisphere were handled successfully through Mr. Root's skillful statesmanship. One of them involved the representation of the Latin

American nations at the Second Peace Conference at The Hague. Only three American Republics, Brazil, Mexico, and the United States, had been invited by the Czar of Russia to the First Hague Conference of 1899, and the delegates of only Mexico and the United States actually attended. At the Second Pan American Conference of 1901-2, the other American governments requested the United States and Mexico to arrange for their signature of the Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. In carrying out this request as Secretary of State of the United States, Mr. Root urged and obtained an invitation to all the American Republics to attend the Second Conference at The Hague. He went further and diplomatically arranged to have that conference postponed from 1906 until the year 1907 in order that it might not interfere with the Third Pan American Conference at Rio de Janeiro in 1906.

The Rio Conference made permanent the Union of American Republics and adopted a resolution expressing the hope that its Bureau in Washington should be properly housed as a permanent center of information and of interchange of ideas and contain a suitable library in memory of Christopher Columbus. As chairman ex officio of the Governing Board of the Bureau of American Republics, Mr. Root on December 4, 1906, sent an appeal to his philanthropic friend Andrew Carnegie to provide funds for such a building. In his letter Mr. Root stated that "There is a general feeling that the Rio Conference, the South American journey of the Secretary of State, and the expressions of courtesy and kindly feeling which accompanied them, have given a powerful impulse to the growth of a better acquaintance between the people of all the American countries, a better mutual understanding between them, the establishment of a common public opinion, and the reasonable and kindly treat-

²⁰ "Latin America and the United States," *ibid.*, p. 10.

²¹ "Latin American Policy of the United States," p. 239.

ment of international questions in the place of isolation, suspicion, irritation, strife, and war."²² Mr. Carnegie, who had been a member of the American delegation to the First Pan American Conference of 1889, was happy to contribute to what he called "the forthcoming American Temple of Peace, the joint work of all of the Republics." His total contribution amounted to \$850,000.²³ The Congress of the United States appropriated \$200,000 for the site upon which the beautiful building of the Pan American Union in Washington now stands, and the rest of the American Republics gave various sums. Mr. Root took a keen interest in enlarging the scope of the work of the Bureau of the American Republics and in increasing its activities and efficiency. In dedicating the new building on April 26, 1910, he referred to it "as the symbol, the ever present reminder, the perpetual assertion of unity, of common interest and purpose and hope among all the Republics. This building," he continued, "is a confession of faith, a covenant of fraternal duty, a declaration of allegiance to an ideal."²⁴

Some of Mr. Root's outstanding accomplishments in the broader field of world politics directly affecting the Western as well as the Eastern Hemisphere should be noted.

In his instructions to the American delegation to the Hague Peace Conference of 1907, Secretary Root directed that

It should be your effort to bring about in the Second Conference a development of the Hague Tribunal into a permanent tribunal composed of judges who are judicial officers and nothing else, who are paid adequate salaries, who have no other occupation, and who will devote their entire time to the trial and decision of international causes by

²² *"Manual of the Public Benefactions of Andrew Carnegie," Washington, 1919, pp. 285-286.*

²³ *"General Review and Financial Statement Covering the Planning, Construction and Completion of the Buildings and Grounds of the Pan American Union," John Barrett, Director General, 1907-1920, p. 3.*

²⁴ *"Manual of the Public Benefactions of Andrew Carnegie," Washington, 1919, p. 288.*

judicial methods and under a sense of judicial responsibility. These judges should be so selected from the different countries that the different systems of law and procedure and the principal languages shall be fairly represented. The court should be made of such dignity, consideration, and rank that the best and ablest jurists will accept appointment to it, and that the whole world will have absolute confidence in its judgment.²⁵

As is well known, the Hague Conference failed to establish an international court owing to the lack of agreement upon the method of selecting the judges. Thirteen years later Mr. Root had the satisfaction of suggesting in person to the Advisory Committee of Jurists which met at The Hague in the summer of 1920 a method of electing the judges by the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations, which solved this long-standing international difficulty and made it possible to establish the Permanent Court of International Justice in that city in December of that year. It remained in successful operation until closed at the beginning of the present war by a hostile invader who knows not justice. In suggesting his plan for electing the judges of the World Court, Mr. Root drew upon his knowledge of and experience with the practice of the two houses of the United States Congress in agreeing upon legislative matters.

On January 19, 1909, Mr. Root was elected to the United States Senate by the Legislature of the State of New York and a week later he resigned as Secretary of State. During his six years of service in the Senate he was looked up to as a leader in international affairs, in the discussion of which he spoke with the authority of experience and the prestige of accomplishment. Perhaps his greatest effort in the Senate was in support of President Wilson's request for the repeal of the law exempting American coastwise shipping from the payment of tolls

²⁵ *"The Hague Peace Conferences, American Instructions and Reports." New York: Oxford University Press, 1916, p. 79.*

at the Panama Canal against the enactment of which Great Britain had lodged a formal protest. His powerful speeches in the Senate on January 21, 1913, and May 21, 1914, no doubt contributed to the favorable vote of June 11, 1914, repealing the discriminatory law. Making effective use of his familiarity while a member of the Cabinet with the negotiation of the treaties between the United States and Great Britain and the United States with Panama by which the United States obtained the exclusive right to build the Panama Canal on condition that it should be free and open to vessels of all nations on terms of entire equality, Mr. Root based his argument upon the preservation of the good faith of the United States in the performance of its treaty obligations. Recounting the long advocacy of international arbitration by the Government of the United States and its many treaties on the subject, including one with Great Britain, he exclaimed, "There is but one alternative consistent with self-respect. We must arbitrate the interpretation of this treaty or we must retire from the position we have taken." The depth of Senator Root's feeling on the subject was revealed in other passages. Here is one of them:

It is worth while, Mr. President, to be a citizen of a great country, but size alone is not enough to make a country great. A country must be great in its ideals; it must be great-hearted; it must be noble; it must despise and reject all smallness and meanness; it must be faithful to its word; it must keep the faith of treaties; it must be faithful to its mission of civilization in order that it shall be truly great. It is because we believe that of our country that we are proud, aye, that the alien with the first step of his foot upon our soil is proud to be a part of this great democracy.

And he concluded:

Mr. President, how sad it would be if we were to dim the splendor of that great achievement by drawing across it the mark of petty selfishness; if we were to diminish and reduce for generations to come the power and influence of this free Re-

public for the uplifting and the progress of mankind by destroying the respect of mankind for us! How sad it would be if you and I, Senators, were to make ourselves responsible for destroying that bright and inspiring ideal which has enabled free America to lead the world in progress toward liberty and justice!²⁶

The Congress finally agreed with President Wilson and Senator Root and repealed the law.

While Secretary of State, Mr. Root had aided in the foundation of the American Society of International Law and the publication of its quarterly *Journal*. As president of the Society for seventeen years he delivered a series of annual presidential addresses which gave him a world-wide reputation as an international lawyer. Some of these addresses were of special interest for the Western Hemisphere. For example, on April 22, 1914, he delivered a comprehensive statement of his views on *The Real Monroe Doctrine*, as previously summarized.²⁷ On April 27, 1916, he discussed the Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Nations which had been adopted by the American Institute of International Law on January 6 of that year. The American Institute was founded on October 12, 1912, under the patronage of Mr. Root as President of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, by Dr. James Brown Scott, who had become Director of the Division of International Law of the Endowment, and Dr. Alejandro Álvarez, the noted Chilean jurist. The Institute was composed of five members from national societies of international law in each of the American Republics, and for a number of years it received material support from the Carnegie Endowment through Mr. Root's great interest in its work of promoting the development of international law in the Americas.

²⁶ "Congressional Record," Jan. 21, 1913, Vol. 49, Pt. 2, pp. 1824-1825.

²⁷ "Proceedings of the American Society of International Law," 1914, pp. 6-22.

As to the Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Nations proclaimed by the American Institute, Mr. Root said: "This instrument asserts the right of every nation to continued existence, to independence, to exclusive jurisdiction over its own territory, and to equality with every other nation; and it denies the right of any nation to commit for its own protection or preservation, unlawful acts towards innocent and unoffending states. These are the fundamentals of international right. They involve the existence of a democratic community of nations." The Declaration had been adopted during the war in Europe which had already witnessed violations of the territories of small nations, especially of Belgium, whose neutrality was guaranteed by both treaty and international law. Mr. Root therefore continued: "The right of any strong nation to destroy all those alleged rights of other nations in pursuit of what it deems to be useful for its own protection or preservation is asserted. . . . If this view prevails the whole structure of modern international law will be without foundation."²⁸

Between these two addresses, Mr. Root had made another one before the American Society of International Law on December 28, 1915, entitled *The Outlook for International Law*, in which he considered the position of international law as a result of the war then raging in which many violations were taking place. The primary requisite of the reestablishment and strengthening of the law of nations, he said, is a court of international justice with a general obligation to submit all justiciable questions to its jurisdiction. There must then be laws agreed upon for the international court to administer. To give international law binding force, a radical change in the attitude of nations toward violations of law is

necessary. "Up to this time," he said, "breaches of international law have been treated as we treat wrongs under civil procedure, as if they concerned nobody except the particular nation upon which the injustice was inflicted and the nation inflicting it. . . . There must be a change in theory," he continued, "and violations of the law of such a character as to threaten the peace and order of the community of nations must be deemed a violation of the right of every civilized nation to have the law maintained and a legal injury to every nation. . . . Rules may be so framed," he thought, "that a policy of aggression cannot be worked out except through open violation of law which will meet the protest and condemnation of the world at large, backed by whatever means shall have been devised for law enforcement."²⁹

The sage advice and wise counsel of a man with Mr. Root's great experience in law, government, diplomacy, and international politics, as to what should be done at the end of World War I to reestablish law and order in a war-torn world apply with even greater force at the present time. His remarks were intended particularly for those who would be responsible for maintaining the future peace of the world. "When this war is ended," he said, "and the foreign offices and judicial tribunals and publicists of the world resume the peaceable discussion of international rights and duties, they will certainly have to consider not merely what there is left of certain specific rules, but also the fundamental basis of obligation upon which all rules depend. The civilized world will have to determine whether what we call international law is to be continued as a mere code of etiquette or is to be a real body of laws imposing obligations much more definite and inevitable than they have been heretofore. It must be one

²⁸ "Proceedings of the American Society of International Law," 1916, pp. 2-11.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, 1915, pp. 2-11.

thing or the other." He ended his discourse with a query which still remains to be answered by the statesmen responsible for the reconstruction of a world based on law and order when final victory in the present war is achieved:

Although foreign offices can still discuss what is fair and just and what is expedient and wise, they can not appeal to law for the decision of disputed questions unless the appeal rests upon an obligation to obey the law. What course will the nations follow?³⁰

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

Marcial Mora Miranda

Ambassador of Chile

THE new Ambassador of Chile, who presented his letters of credence to the President of the United States on October 5, 1944, is the distinguished lawyer, statesman and educator Señor Marcial Mora Miranda. Señor Mora has also become the Chilean representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

He was born in Chillán on January 12, 1895. From his early youth a man of multiple interests, he worked on the editorial staff of *La Nación* of Santiago while he was taking his degrees in education and law at the University of Chile. When he returned to Chillán to practice law in his father's office, he also found time to teach history and geography in the high school there, to edit a newspaper, and to take a prominent part in the activities of the Radical Party.

From 1926 to 1930, Señor Mora served as Deputy in the National Congress. His outspoken opposition to undemocratic and anti-constitutional measures was responsible for his banishment to the Island of Chiloé, where he remained until the fall of the Ibáñez government in 1931. The provisional government then established sent for



him to become Director General of Mail and Telegraph Services, and he was later named Minister of the Interior and of Aviation, in which capacity he ably presided over the critical presidential elections of October 1931.

Under subsequent administrations Señor Mora was President of the National Savings Bank for six years, President of the Central Bank of Chile for a year and a half, and Minister of the Treasury, besides holding other offices. As Minister of Foreign Affairs and Commerce, in 1940, he took action

on two very important problems: he issued the decree fixing the boundaries of the Chilean Antarctic territory, from Cape Horn to the South Pole; and he declared the German consul in Valparaíso *persona non grata* for having smuggled fugitive sailors from the Graf Spee into Chile.

As President of the Radical Party, Señor Mora helped unite the democratic forces of the country to bring about the electoral victory of Juan Antonio Ríos in 1942. After the election, although he was offered the presidency of the Mortgage Bank, he devoted his energies to private practice and to organizing a national movement, "Union for

Victory," in favor of breaking relations with the Axis powers and aiding the United Nations. Señor Mora made innumerable speeches up and down the country and wrote a pamphlet that was widely distributed. A very considerable contribution in the form of medicines, food, clothing, and other supplies has been made by the Union to the war effort of the democratic nations.

In the late 30's Señor Mora found time for a year of travel and study in Europe and the United States.

He has been decorated by the governments of Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil and Panama.

Víctor Andrade

Ambassador of Bolivia

ON December 6, 1944, Señor Víctor Andrade, the new Ambassador of Bolivia in Washington, attended his first session of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Bolivia's chair in the Governing Board had been occupied by the Chargé d'Affaires since the departure of Dr. Luis Fernando Guachalla, the former Ambassador, in June 1944. Señor Andrade presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on December 20, 1944.

Born on March 6, 1905, in the town of Chulumani, in the Province of La Paz, Señor Andrade studied at the Instituto Americano and at the Universidad Mayor de San Andrés in La Paz, where he received his degree as *Licenciado* in Mathematical Sciences. His first position was as professor of mathematics in the Instituto Americano.

In 1930, at the age of twenty-five, he was appointed to the post of Assistant Secretary of Public Education. From 1937 to 1943,



he was general manager of the Workers' Savings and Insurance Bank, and for the last three of those years he served simultaneously as National Deputy. In 1943 he was appointed Minister of Labor, and in

1944 he became Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Señor Andrade's experience in the international field includes attendance as a representative of Bolivia at various international congresses, especially as an expert on labor. In 1939 he was chairman of his country's delegation to the Second Labor Conference of American States members of the International Labor Organization at Habana; in 1942 he was Bolivian Delegate to

the First Inter-American Conference on Social Security at Santiago; and last May he came to the United States to represent Bolivia at the meeting of the International Labor Organization in Philadelphia.

He is the author of the following works: *Aritmética Aplicada*; *Educación Indígena*; *Derrumbamiento* (an unpublished novel); and *Elementos sobre las Condiciones Sociales de Bolivia*.

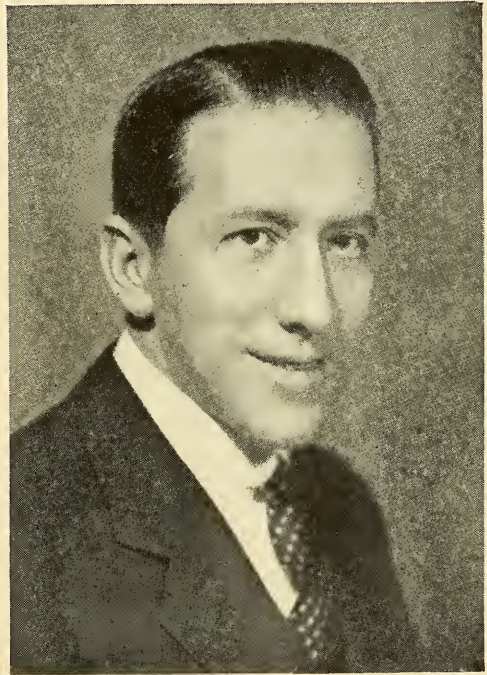
Guillermo Belt

Ambassador of Cuba

WHEN John Benjamin Belt, the descendant of an old Maryland family, decided after the Civil War to leave his native Washington, D. C., and establish himself in Cuba, he probably never dreamed that his grandson would some day return to the same city as Ambassador of Cuba to the United States. Such, however, is the case of Dr. Guillermo Belt, who as his country's envoy presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on December 20, 1944, and took his place on December 6 as Cuba's representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

One of a growing number of young ambassadors in Washington, Dr. Belt, who was born in 1905, began his public career early in life. After graduating from the Law School of the University of Habana, he became Commissioner of Public Education in 1933. The next year he was appointed secretary to the provisional Council of State, and later he served ably as Mayor of Habana and as Minister without portfolio.

Dr. Belt knows the United States well, having already visited this country on in-



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

numerable occasions. Last August he accompanied Dr. Ramón Grau San Martín, now President of Cuba, on the trip which he made to Washington as guest of the nation shortly before taking office.

When asked about his perfect English, Dr. Belt says he hardly knows where he learned the language. "It almost seems," he says, "as if I had always spoken it."

Tribute to Cordell Hull

ON November 21, 1944, the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, presented to President Roosevelt his resignation from the high post which he had so brilliantly filled since March 4, 1933. The retirement from public life of this eminent statesman, whom President Roosevelt called the "Father of the United Nations," was forced on him by reasons of health, and the news of his resignation was received with great feeling throughout the country, where he was regarded as one of the outstanding figures in the intricate field of international relations. Cables expressing regret were sent to Mr. Hull from many foreign nations, especially the American Republics.

During the almost twelve years in which Mr. Hull headed the State Department, he worked untiringly and determinedly for world peace and friendship among nations. His record as a public servant speaks for itself; his integrity, always above reproach, and his steadfast faith in the high principles which he unceasingly proclaimed made him one of his country's honored sons. Following the entrance of the United States into the world conflict, he began at once the great task of laying the foundations for a lasting world peace. Unfortunately his health, undermined by years of arduous labor, obliged him to lay down the reins before he could carry his work to completion, but his hopes and ideals, as well as his invaluable advice, will continue to guide his country toward the final victory of the principles of democracy and toward the peace and the tranquillity to which it aspires.

Throughout his entire tenure of office as Secretary of State, Mr. Hull also acted as



CORDELL HULL

Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. At Governing Board meetings, and at many inter-American conferences and congresses, his voice was raised again and again in favor of solidarity among the nations of the Western Hemisphere. His enthusiastic support of the furtherance of inter-American friendship and concord was an ever-present reality in his thoughts and deeds. One of his outstanding acts as Secretary of State was the initiation of the reciprocal trade treaties which are now in effect between the United States and the majority of the other American Republics. These treaties constitute a

valuable bond that serves to strengthen inter-American commercial and economic relations.

At its meeting of December 6, 1944, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union paid a special tribute of respect and admiration to its former Chairman. The Ambassador of Brazil as Acting Chairman made the following remarks, speaking on behalf of all his colleagues:

As you are fully aware, the Honorable Cordell Hull has resigned his functions of Secretary of State and Chairman of this Board.

It is not incumbent upon me to measure his achievements as head of the Department of State for many years, but I feel confident that I am voicing the conviction of my colleagues when I praise his leadership as Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

Not only at international conferences, but also at the helm of our organization, he always strove to unite our common efforts and thus to strengthen a genuine Pan American spirit. Although opinion may vary regarding his action in the realm of politics, no one but will acknowledge him as a man of unimpeachable integrity, an eminent citizen of the United States, and a great son of the Americas.

We wish for his speedy and complete recovery, and we are sure that we shall ever be able to count on the intelligent advice of this high-minded man, the "Father of the United Nations."

In order to express what we so keenly feel, I have the honor of submitting to you a proposed resolution that reads as follows:

WHEREAS, The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has learned with profound regret of the resignation, for reasons of health, of the Honorable Cordell Hull as Secretary of State of the United States; and

WHEREAS, The withdrawal of Cordell Hull from the office of Secretary of State and membership on the Governing Board will deprive the

members of this body of an eminent colleague who for more than eleven years honored them with his invaluable collaboration and advice and with his sincere friendship; and

WHEREAS, Cordell Hull as Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board rendered inestimable service to the American Republics and the cause of Pan Americanism; and

WHEREAS, In the various inter-American conferences and meetings which he attended his authoritative voice was raised on behalf of continental harmony and solidarity; and

WHEREAS, The reciprocal trade agreements that he negotiated are typical of the equitable spirit in which he conducted international relations,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To express its deep regret at the withdrawal of Cordell Hull from the Department of State and the Chairmanship of the Governing Board, a regret shared by every member of the Board.

2. To voice its fervent hope for his prompt and complete recovery.

3. To manifest the appreciation of the members of the Governing Board for the cordial spirit in which he presided over their deliberations.

4. To pay tribute to his achievements in international affairs in general and in inter-American relations in particular.

5. To record its gratitude for his unfailing interest in the work of the Pan American Union and the whole-hearted manner in which he upheld the ideals of the Union.

6. To express its confidence that Cordell Hull will continue to be an enthusiastic supporter of the Pan American Union and a strong advocate of the cause of Pan Americanism.

At the conclusion of the Ambassador's remarks, the Board unanimously adopted the proposed resolution, a copy of which was later signed by all the members and sent to Mr. Hull.

Some Economic Problems

The Progress of Argentine Industry

LUIS COLOMBO

President of the Argentine Industrial Union

THIS WAR has made evident the creative capacity of Argentine industry and has shown beyond doubt what it can do when it is encouraged and protected. Thus the country as a whole, which was slow to understand us manufacturers, now sees the great benefits of industry, for many years underestimated both by successive administrations and by the people. We are proving that industry was never opposed to agriculture; we always said that agriculture and industry not only complement each other but that the greater the industrial activity, the wider and more assured would be the distribution of agricultural products. This fact is fully proved by the following figures: industry absorbs almost 80 percent of agricultural production, and while the value of raw materials exported declined from 1,760 million pesos in 1937 to 680 million in 1943, the value of manufactured and semi-manufactured exports increased from 546 million to 1,500 million pesos in the same period.

But something else must be pointed out to show the full importance of the extraordinary development of industry and its effect on the economy and general welfare of the country. The index of imports which, using 1935 as a base of 100, rose to 132 in 1937, fell to 80 in 1943—that is, imports

were 20 percent less than in 1935 and almost 70 percent less than in 1937. We all are fully aware that our economy depended until a very short time ago entirely on foreign trade: on our ability or inability to export raw materials and import foreign goods. The sudden drop of imports in general and of exports of raw materials would have been catastrophic in other circumstances. To the lack of indispensable goods would have been added unemployment and an artificial rise in prices which, aggravated by the inflow of large sums of foreign capital, would have reached astronomical figures, producing one of the greatest crises in our history.

Fortunately, the closing of foreign trade to the usual interchange of products came at a time when the country was in the full surge of industrial development. The market offered and still offers all necessary merchandise. Such a supply, combined with our traditional abundance of foodstuffs, has resulted in keeping the cost of living index lower in Argentina than in any other country.

This situation has permitted manufacturers to maintain steady employment and to raise wages on their own initiative after the beginning of the war, especially in many lines whose profits have increased, such as the textile, chemical, metallurgical, and food products industries. In the last six months official figures show that in industry as a whole, real wages, that is, wages in relation

From an address delivered September 2, 1944 at a banquet commemorating Argentine Industry Day. Revista de la Economía Argentina, Buenos Aires, septiembre 1944.

of the American Republics

to the cost of living, were 13 percent higher than in 1939. In fact, while the number of workers has showed a 20 percent increase since that year, there has been a 48 percent increase in wages paid, which means that the average wage increased 23 percent. Since, according to the Department of Labor and Social Welfare, the cost of living has risen 8.75 percent, the result is that average real

wages are 13 percent higher than in 1939.

We applaud the creation of the Department of Industry and Commerce, which fulfills an old aspiration of industry. This new Department, which will deal with specific problems in its field, too burdensome for the Ministry of Agriculture, will doubtless be invaluable to the future of Argentine industry.



ARGENTINE FACTORY WORKERS

Since expanding industry now absorbs 80 percent of agricultural production, the Argentine export of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods has greatly increased.

The Bolivian Mining Industry and National Economy

It is no exaggeration to state that without the contribution of the mining industry the national budget would be so diminished that many branches of public administration such as schools, the army, the courts, and the diplomatic service would practically disappear. The country could not even dream of a highway program or of public works. The development of the country in the last 50 years has paralleled the rise of the mining industry, especially that of tin. A crash in mining would put the country back to the chaotic period before the War of the Pacific. The backwardness of the country at that time, the insignificance of the towns and cities, the social and political atmosphere in which Daza, Melgarejo, and Morales flourished, came in great part from public poverty, from the lack of industrial enterprises which would provide a tonic for national vitality.

The part that mining contributes to national revenues may be calculated at approximately 70 percent. To be specific, the duties paid by mining in 1943 amounted to the respectable sum of 567,666,473 bolivianos.¹ If to this figure showing direct taxes are added the sums coming from licenses, taxes on profits and dividends, and other imposts, the whole sum by which the mining industry swelled revenues in the aforementioned year would reach approximately 900,000,000 bolivianos.

Comparing this figure with the total of the various taxes yielded by mining in 1940, which was in round figures 450,000,000 bolivianos, it is seen that the amount has doubled. Since this was due to increased exports of and higher prices for the ores

required by the war, this bonanza cannot last and will end with the war.

Another contribution of the mining industry quite as important as its financial aid consists in the fact that it gives work to a great many people—that it is a source of food, clothing, and shelter for a large number of families. Certainly not less than 56,000 persons are occupied in mining. The wages and salaries distributed in the last three years average annually 570 million bolivianos. It must be considered, furthermore, that this legion of workers constitutes a large body of consumers with a purchasing power which stimulates business, agriculture, and other industries. Thus it is the mines that stimulate the development of the other economic activities in Bolivia, and it may be deduced that any reduction or recession in mining would be prejudicial to business or economic activities in general.

Finally, mining plays a large part in maintaining the international balance of payment through the compulsory surrender of foreign exchange.

Present world conditions show plainly the interdependence among nations and influence them to carry on an active international trade for their common benefit. There is not and cannot be an aspiration on their part to raise Chinese walls against traffic in ideas and merchandise. The policy of hermetically sealed nationalism with high prohibitive customs barriers only managed to make the depression after the last war more acute, carrying the nations to the brink of catastrophe. Trade is useful and necessary. It would, indeed, be foolish to try to sell our products in foreign markets without buying from them what we need and do not produce. But if this compensation in international

Minería Boliviana, La Paz, Agosto 1944.

¹ One boliviano equals approximately \$.02 (December 28, 1944).



A BOLIVIAN TIN MINE

The development of Bolivia in the last fifty years is said to parallel the rise of the mining of various minerals, especially tin.

trade is to be considered legitimate, normal, and healthy, it must have two characteristics: what is imported must be alien to our soil and peculiar to foreign countries, and the value of imports must be in harmony with our active foreign exchange balance derived from exports. With respect to these two conditions the situation of our country has certain alarming aspects. Large amounts of foreign exchange are spent for imports of food-stuffs which Bolivia could advantageously produce in large part if not entirely. The following figures will support this statement. In 1943 we imported, among other items, the following:

	<i>Dollars</i>
Beef, cattle, lard, bacon	1,445,975
Edible oils	1,456,878
Rice	484,657
Sugar	1,888,729
Wheat flour	680,694
Wheat	1,630,354
Total	7,587,287

As may be seen, there has been a large drain on our available foreign exchange to pay for articles of prime necessity. The country should have devoted thought to increasing food production. It is never too late to consider this problem.

Industry in Brazil

In general São Paulo ranks first in Brazil's total textile production, its mills turning out about 60 percent of the national output. The following figures show the state's production percentages in the various branches of the industry:

	Percent
Cotton yarn and textiles.....	39
Pure and mixed linen.....	90
Woolen yarn and textiles.....	42
Silk yarn and textiles.....	75
Hemp yarn and cloth.....	77
Jute and similar textiles.....	64

In the iron and steel industry first place falls to the State of Minas Gerais with 64 percent of national production, followed by the State of São Paulo with 20 percent. In metallurgy and the manufacture of metal articles, however, São Paulo comes first with 38 percent of total production; the Federal District produces 27 percent; the State of Rio Grande do Sul 15 percent; and Minas Gerais is fourth with 7 percent. São Paulo also stands first in the following industries: leather, 36 percent; china, glass, building materials, and plumbing fixtures and supplies, 52 percent; wooden articles and furniture, 54 percent; food products and preserves, 28 percent; cement, 45 percent; rubber articles, 30 percent; and many others.

Brazil is now in the midst of an unprecedented economic transformation and diversification. New regions and new production areas are opening up. Regions in which one-time flourishing activities such as agriculture, stockraising, mining, and other extractive industries had fallen off because the soil had worn out or eroded and the mines had become exhausted are again coming to

the fore as centers of productive activity through newly installed industries, new mining discoveries, and modern agricultural developments.

Like São Paulo, the State of Rio de Janeiro is developing at a pace that within the next two years will give it second place in industry. Inside its boundaries are located the Volta Redonda steel mill, the National Motor Factory, and other enterprises such as window glass and alkali factories. The state is fortunate in having three first-class power plants, one at Ribeirão das Lages, another on Pombos Island in the Paraíba do Sul River, and the third, soon to be completed, at Macabu. These power plants hold great promise for the state which surrounds the Federal District, which is itself another great industrial center.

Another tremendous project now taking form is the development of the Rio Doce Valley iron mines, an enormous property that has been nationalized. Along with it is the project for development of the valley of the Velhas River, a tributary of the São Francisco River. These two valleys, located near the industrial centers of Belo Horizonte, Sabará, Monlevade, and many others, are wonderfully rich in manganese, iron, and other metallic minerals, and they form the great iron and steel center of Minas Gerais. The Rio Doce Valley already has large iron and steel mills and it opens up to the imagination the prospect of the development there of a Brazilian Ruhr Valley. The same is true of the Velhas Valley where, in addition to mining activities, the first great enterprise is the Lagoa Santa airplane factory.

In addition to these industrial centers in the central part of the country, *i.e.*, the Federal District, São Paulo, Minas Gerais, and the State of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil has two other centers of great importance: Rio Grande do Sul and Pernambuco.

Pernambuco occupies third place in total

From an article on Aspects of Industrial Development in Brazil. Cultura Política, Rio de Janeiro, maio 1944.

national textile production, second in cotton textiles, burlap bags, silk, and hemp, and fourth in linen. Rio Grande do Sul is sixth in total textile manufactures and second in the production of woolen yarn and textiles, third in linen, fourth in hemp, and fifth in burlap and similar bags. In Brazil's metallurgical industry and in leather also Rio Grande do Sul ranks third in output; in the production of china, glass, plumbing, and building materials it ranks fifth; in the manufacture of wooden articles and furniture it is fourth; and in the processing of foodstuffs it holds second place.

Pernambuco is the nation's greatest sugar producing state, and the manufacture of preserves and sweetmeats is one of its im-

portant industries. It also ranks fourth in the production of leather. Rio Grande do Sul is the foremost coal producing state and it has also made great progress in the meat and food packing industries. The total output of these two states stamps them as Brazil's second most important industrial center, following the industrial nucleus formed by the states of the central region.

Still a third group of industrial states may be cited: Paraná, Santa Catarina, Bahia, Ceará, and Paraíba. It may further be stated that at present there is not a single region in Brazil that is not progressing industrially; every state has prosperous enterprises of some kind and at the same time is starting new ones.



Courtesy Brazilian Trade Bureau

A BRAZILIAN TEXTILE WORKER

The textile industry of Brazil will furnish to UNRRA, as part of the country's contribution to the relief of liberated countries, at least 45,000,000 yards of cotton goods.

The Government Development Corporation in Chile

IN order to facilitate the importing of goods needed for the normal development of its Plans for Industry, Agriculture, Power and Fuels, Mining, and Commerce and Transportation, the Government Corporation¹ has opened an office in the United States.

This has made it possible, by working directly in the country from which the raw materials and machinery come, to bring into Chile imports consisting chiefly of heavy machinery and amounting, in a period of approximately four years, to 120,000 tons. The investments made in the United States have reached a total of \$35,000,000; credits were supplied by the Export-Import Bank of Washington.

In this connection it has been pointed out that the benefits accruing to Chile from these activities are appearing in some of the enterprises which are already in operation. We

El Mercurio, Santiago de Chile, 30 de octubre de 1944.

¹ After Pedro Aguirre Cerda became President the earthquake of January 24, 1939 brought sudden and heavy demands which crystallized his ideas on economic coordination and development of productive resources and centered public attention on them, so that in the course of three months a plan of promotion and coordination was drawn up and enacted as Law No. 6334, of April 29, 1939. It established the Government Development Corporation (*Corporación de Fomento de la Producción*). The law was revised and restated as Law No. 6644 of January 10, 1941. The Corporation is headed by a Council which includes representatives of the President and of the Congress, of organized labor, and of various private and semi-public bodies concerned with agriculture, mining, and industry; the Comptroller General of the Republic was added to the Council by the Extraordinary Economic Powers Law of July 18, 1942.

In a letter sent September 6, 1944 to the executive vice-president of the Corporation, Juan Antonio Ríos, now president of Chile, restated the Corporation's program, now that it has passed the initial stage, laying special emphasis on electrification, renewal of production machinery, and non-duplication of work of other government agencies. The Corporation is expected to undertake only large enterprises beyond the scope of private initiative.

may take for example the Pilmaiquén electric plant, which has initial capacity of 12,000 h.p. This plant will be officially opened on November 4, but it has already been in operation for two months. A beginning has also been made on the manufacture of tires, and a motion picture studio, Chile Films, has begun work.

Another notable outgrowth of the Industrial Development Plan is the enlargement of El Melón cement plant at La Calera, which will make possible an increased production of 100,000 tons; in addition to this the Juan Soldado cement plant, with a capacity of 200,000 tons, will be in operation, if all goes well, by next April.

The Power and Fuels Plan is also making good progress. The electric plants at Sauzal and Abanico have been assured of their equipment, which has already begun to be delivered in Chile, and production of power is expected to commence in 1946. The petroleum question is of special importance in this Plan, as is evident in the effort which has been expended for two years in the Magallanes region, and which will be put to the proof in the coming year. Contracts have already been signed with the firms that will do the drilling, and the necessary machinery will arrive within a few months. Thus the year 1945 will settle the question of the presence or absence of petroleum in the southern part of the country.

Another project which has already received much study has to do with the iron and steel industry. This project has already been reviewed by United States experts, and some changes in the direction of expansion have been found necessary to make it economically sound, since it is difficult to justify a steel mill of small capacity. Machinery

for this plant will cost some \$39,000,000 in all. Experts of the Export-Import Bank of Washington are now revising the project, and other experts will soon come to Chile to make supplementary studies.

Success in the execution of the plans for the iron and steel mill and in the finding of oil would mean a reduction of from 22 to 25 percent of our imports, with the possibility of opening up new classes of exports.



THE CHILEAN COUNTRYSIDE

Reliance is placed on the hydroelectric program of the Chilean Development Corporation to further the industrialization of the nation.

Progress of Industrialization in Bogotá, Colombia

It is a great satisfaction to report the fact that regardless of the difficulties created by the war there has been at no time any lack of confidence on the part of business men in the stability of the country's economy. This confidence, a factor of great weight, has found its best expression in Bogotá, as the capital city, through the movement of capital funds employed not only in forming new commercial and industrial firms but also in strengthening the organization of numerous enterprises already established. The total for these two classes of investment in the year 1943 was the highest ever recorded.

These investments reached the figure of 42,381,120 pesos,¹ surpassing those for 1942 by 4,412,890 pesos.

The activity to which we refer can be duly measured by an examination of the figures shown on the books of the Bogotá Chamber of Commerce, figures which enable this city to present an accurate picture of the state of commerce and industry, and which have rightly been regarded as an index of the general situation.

Of this sum of 42,381,120 pesos the amount devoted to increases in capital was 23,788,866 pesos, and that used for investment in new companies was 18,592,254 pesos. The latter sum was distributed as follows:

	Pesos
In industrial companies.....	13,458,714
In commercial companies.....	5,133,540
Total	18,592,254

From the introduction to the 1943 report of the Bogotá Chamber of Commerce. Revista del Banco de la República, agosto de 1944.

¹The amount for 1944 bade fair to equal the 1943 figure, since the total for the first 9 months, according to figures from the Boletín de la Cámara de Comercio de Bogotá, was 34,289,540 pesos. The Colombian peso equals \$.57 (December 28, 1944).—EDITOR.

We present an analysis of the investment of capital in new commercial and industrial companies, hoping this may provide a basis for estimating the business situation, with special reference to the activities involved it should serve to indicate the trend of these investments and the manner in which they are responding to the various needs of the country, as shown by the lines which register the greatest increase.

This analysis shows that of the 320 companies organized in the year 1943, with 18,592,254 pesos capital, 176 are industrial in character and 144 are commercial.

In 1942, 311 companies were started; 181 industrial and 130 commercial, with a capital of 20,483,460 pesos.

In 1943 the capital increases in companies already formed amounted to 23,788,866 pesos, while in 1942 the corresponding figure was only 17,484,770 pesos.

Most of the 144 commercial companies organized in 1943 were engaged in the following activities:

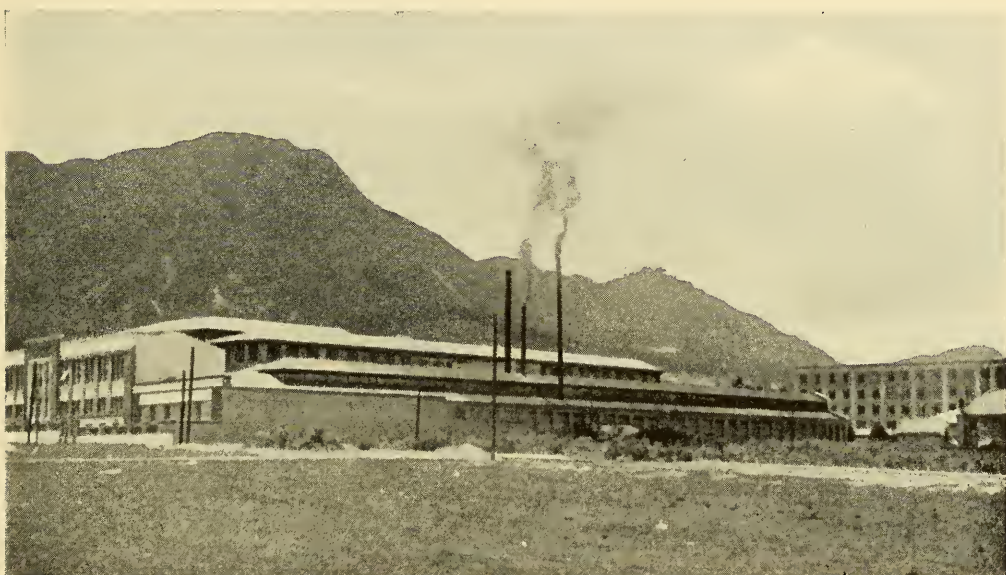
Buying, selling, and importing general merchandise; dealing in drugs and medicines; acting as local sales representatives; buying and selling real estate, building materials, foods, lumber, electric goods, textiles, cinchona, hardware, and telephones and supplies; taking charge of real and personal property; subdividing and improving real estate; exporting agricultural products; distributing merchandise; importing automobiles and accessories; financing business transactions; advertising; conducting watch and jewelry shops, restaurants, bars, etc.

Most of the 176 industrial companies organized in 1943 were engaged in the following activities:

Petroleum exploitation; agriculture and

stockraising; making pharmaceutical products; engineering and building; making wool, silk, and cotton textiles; overland transportation; making furniture and other articles of wood; machine shops; mining and metal-working; lithography and typography; making wood and paper containers; milling; making hosiery; making gums, resins, and adhesives; rubber exploitation; making cane

sugar and its by-products; producing oils, essences, and vegetable fats; making cement and articles of cement; preparing and exporting coffee; refining salt; tailoring; making clothes, motion picture films, china, ampoules, alkaloids, rubber goods, curtains, rugs, toilet articles, food products, farm machinery, tiles, fiber articles, silverware, and jewelry; tanning; and retreading tires.



Photograph by Ernesto Galarza

A BOGOTÁ FACTORY

Investments in new and old industries in the capital of Colombia were expected last year to be on practically the same scale as in the peak year of 1943.

Coffee in Costa Rica

MANUEL F. JIMÉNEZ

Chairman of the Costa Rican Development Commission

SINCE 1820, that is, since the very early days of the nation, coffee has been cultivated by Costa Ricans and in the course of years has become the determining factor in the wealth and welfare of the nation. It has been known to constitute 70.22 percent of the total exports of the country and from 1930 to 1939 averaged 59.29 percent. Coffee exerts a favorable or unfavorable effect on the nation because of its widespread cultivation. The Institute for Coffee Protection, a national organization the purpose of which is to study coffee in all its aspects, has collected statistics showing that the country has 25,447 coffee plantations belonging to 21,576 proprietors and supporting a rural population of 144,026. Among these proprietors 12,049 have plantings of fewer than a thousand trees, that is, they own less than two acres and a half. Another 4,280 own 1,000 to 2,000 trees planted on less than five acres. The total area planted to coffee is 116,700 acres. Property is so divided in Costa Rica that owners of plantations more than 375 acres in extent grow only two percent of the coffee in the country.

In some years, notably 1918, 1927, 1928 and 1929, Costa Rica has received high prices for its coffee. If we consider the last 41 years, present prices could not be called low, but for two reasons they are not adjusted to the present situation. In the first place they are not in harmony with the

general world rise in prices, which of course affects all the articles imported into Costa Rica. In the second place the increased cost of production, as we shall explain, must be offset. Costa Rica is one of the countries most affected by high prices and the cost of coffee production has gone up 70 percent over that at the beginning of the war. In our opinion the factors leading to the increased cost of production of coffee in Costa Rica may be summarized as follows: 1) general rise in prices of imported commodities, transportation, insurance, etc., because of the war, aggravated by an unbridled internal speculation; 2) monetary inflation; 3) new social laws.

1. The first factor is outside of Costa Rican control insofar as it refers to the price of merchandise abroad, and some increase in local prices is therefore justifiable. The price rise has been heightened in Costa Rica by the creation of mechanisms which in many cases have disorganized the normal channels of importation and supply, thus contributing to the speculation that is rampant. It would be desirable for the interested governments to put new systems into effect to end this speculation.

2. In Costa Rica inflation has become alarming. It must be stated that the Treasury is not really responsible, for inflation has followed the influx of large amounts of capital for big enterprises: the Pan American Highway and Military Highway and plantations of rubber, abacá, and cinchona. There has also been incoming capital which sought permanent investment and has been converted into national currency as far as the

From a report presented by the Costa Rican Development Commission to the Conference of Commissions of Inter-American Development held in New York, May 9-18, 1944. San José, May 1944.

present banking regulations will allow. This influx of foreign exchange has come on top of an investment in banana plantations valued at \$23,000,000.

It should be noted that monetary circulation in 1943 was almost three times larger than in 1937 and that bank deposits now are two and a half times as large as those in 1937. Notwithstanding the greater volume of Costa Rican transactions, inflation must be considered a consequence of the large volume of money in circulation which has given rise, as has been said, to a violent price increase. Although the Treasury is not directly responsible for the increase in the circulatory medium, it has influenced

inflation indirectly, since budget deficits produce negotiable bonds which likewise contribute to the inflationary process.

3. Costa Rica is deeply interested in taking measures for social benefit and in improving the condition of the worker. Government receipts spent for these purposes are more than 33 percent of all taxes paid by Costa Ricans. The Ministry of Labor has recently been created; a Social Security Fund organized; and a Labor Code and a Sanitary Code enacted. They are designed to improve the workers' standard of living and their conditions in general, but unfortunately in these complex matters the golden mean is not easily achieved.



Courtesy of the Costa Rican Embassy

COFFEE DRYING GROUND IN COSTA RICA

The production of coffee, Costa Rica's major export, is divided among many growers, most of them owners of only a few acres of land.

Cuban Export Trade

THE people of Cuba live exclusively by their work. Unlike the United States, Great Britain, and other nations, they have no foreign capital invested abroad which yields them an income. And unlike Spain, Ireland, and Italy before the war, Cuba has no large colonies of nationals living in foreign countries who work and send to the homeland a

Excerpt from a report on International Trade Policy, presented at the recent Conference on the Development of National Economy. Diario de la Marina, Habana, 5 de octubre de 1944.

part of their earnings for the support of their families. Finally, Cuba engages in no international service, such as maritime transportation or insurance, which would be a source of income for the Cuban people. The only means within its reach of obtaining abroad the exchange to pay for products which it must import is to export in the greatest amount possible and at the best price obtainable the products, in as great variety as practicable, of Cuban agriculture and industry. If the doors of this export trade were closed to Cuba, the republic would have no other alternatives than a rapid impoverishment or the unhappy expedient of export-



A CUBAN TOBACCO FARM

Exports are a vital factor in Cuban economic life because the country lives by its own labor, not on capital invested abroad, funds sent home by workers in other countries, or international services.

ing workers, as has been the case with Ireland, Italy, and Spain itself, where poverty imposed such expatriation.

The basic fact just stated suffices to emphasize the extraordinary importance of Cuba's export trade, an importance far greater than that attached to such trade in countries like the United States, which also has an enormous domestic market, or like the Soviet Union, which has a huge native population and is undergoing vast expansion. Small nations must export as much as possible, because the amount of manpower needed to produce articles for home consumption is limited by the small size of the domestic market. This would inevitably lead to unemployment once the requirements of national consumption were met. Exports—which really mean the payment of workers' wages with foreign exchange—assure an additional source of labor for the working masses of the country; they guarantee a method of obtaining a higher income and furnish those working masses with the resources necessary for the purchase of the

agricultural and industrial products of the country destined for domestic use.

Thus, the exportation of the products of Cuban agriculture and industry, such as sugar, tobacco, alcohol, liquors, fresh fruits and vegetables, minerals, and others, not only gives the Cuban worker employment beyond that required for production for home consumption, but at the same time also assures him of additional income, which in turn increases his consumption of Cuban foodstuffs and manufactured articles. The development of both agriculture and industry is therefore stimulated, more work is available, and an appreciable contribution is made toward a better standard of living for the laborers in both those basic activities. This naturally leads to the well recognized fact that when our exports increase in quantity and price, production for home consumption is favorably affected in direct proportion to the increase in export products.

The conclusion derived from these facts is clear: export trade plays a vital role in Cuban economy.

The West Indian Market for Dominican Products

RAFAEL A. ESPAILLAT

Chairman of the Dominican Coffee and Cacao Defense Commission

OUR exports, which prior to the war were channeled toward European markets, to England, Canada, and the United States, have undergone a marked disarrangement by force of the circumstances created by the conflict. Thus the coffee which used to go to Europe now finds its way to the United States; our sugar market has changed from time to time;

and a great variety of food products which formerly were consumed at home or were sporadically exported to island possessions in the West Indies have found a stable market in that region in recent years.

The growth of exports to the West Indies and the transfer of our coffee exports to the United States are the most important changes in the trade routine we followed between the First and Second World Wars.

It cannot be absolutely assured that the change of our coffee market to the United

From an article on Some Economic Aspects of the Principal Products of the Dominican Republic in World Trade. Finanzas, Ciudad Trujillo, julio 1944.



THE PORT AT CIUDAD TRUJILLO

During the war the Dominican Republic has built up a large export trade in foodstuffs to other West Indian islands.

States field is a beneficial one, but offhand judgment reveals this: we have acquired a large market for a commodity (coffee) which we can produce on a much larger scale than at present. At the same time, with respect to the West Indian market, there is no doubt that it is a most valuable acquisition, if only the present status can be made permanent.

The West Indian market would represent an extension of our domestic market; it would increase the consuming public for food produced in the Dominican Republic from 2,000,000 to 16,000,000 people. With a varied production for the support of so

large a population, the future of Dominican agriculture—one might almost say of Dominican agricultural land—would be assured. This would be true because a broad diversification of crops preserves the soil and protects it against the exhaustion that follows unrotated crops.

The problem that devolves upon us through the acquisition of this West Indian market is less acute than the problem of the countries that own those territories. They must manage to see that the population is well fed under the low standard of living that prevails there. A commission, composed of representatives of the United States

and Great Britain, has been created to study means of facilitating life in the islands in question, and it is my belief that our country may well be the key to solution of the problem. If our products continue to be allowed to enter free of duty, that condition alone would serve to keep up the flow of our production year by year. Our Government realizes this, and consequently our irrigation ditches are being increased in number and extent, crossing fields that hitherto have been

unproductive and converting them into a promising land of plenty. We shall fulfill our mission of cooperating in the new scheme of things now approaching, by producing for our neighbors in the islands of the Antilles the foodstuffs which their exhausted lands cannot give them.

We shall thus receive honorable benefits, won from the soil of our country, and at the same time we shall be making our contribution toward freeing the world from hunger.

Highways and Agricultural Credit in Ecuador

IT is evident that at last the era of highways has arrived in Ecuador. Merely to complete the routes marked out in the Ecuadorian Government's highway plan to the extent that is considered the minimum requirement for a national communications system would justify all the effort demanded of the country and all the sacrifices of the present generation of Ecuadoreans.

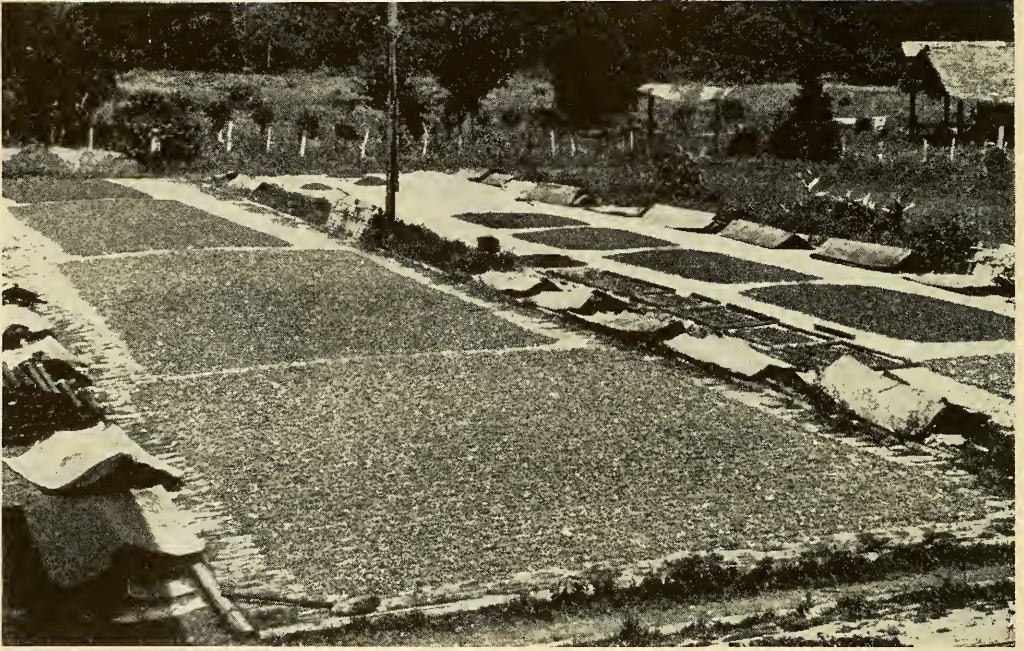
But, as the possibility of completion of the project or a certain stage of it unfolds, thought should also be given now to the problem of adjusting our national life to this new and faster rhythm. Simultaneously with the progress of the highways, the interchange, and the cordiality that will at last unite the interior regions of the country with the Pacific coast, preparation should be made for the extension of credit that will permit successful colonization and profitable development of uncultivated lands.

Therein lies an enormous amount of work that can be done by Ecuadoreans who want to do it. The congestion of cities would be relieved and the country would get away from the empty political talk and the torpid attitude of the second-rate politi-

cians to whom the President referred not long since. All of them, as well as those eternal aspirants for employment of doubtful efficiency, could go to work the incredibly fertile lands of our western Andean slopes. A superabundance of land exists there, and the problem of access to the sea is solved by the rivers until such time as the highways cross our nation in every direction, providing the crowning touch to our economic redemption through the somewhat tardy utilization of our natural wealth.

This work not only requires human capital; it also needs money. The banks would be performing their normal function by backing the man who resolves to devote his savings and years of his life to the job of clearing the woodlands, ploughing the earth, and wresting from it the good fruits of the soil.

The role of the Development Banks in this problem is admirable in every respect and much can be expected from them. One of the principal aspects of their action will be to solve the matter of obtaining the vehicles that will be needed in the postwar period when our main highways are completed. The vehicle that will help the



ECUADOREAN COCOA BEANS

New highways are opening up fertile districts in Ecuador that need capital and settlers to develop them.

farmer clear his land will also be the one that a little later will deliver his products to the cities and, consequently, the one that will build up his bank account for meeting his obligations and accumulating his profits.

Highways will not automatically populate the rural areas; credit must also have a place in the picture. And we must proceed under the conviction that neither the exploitation of hitherto uncultivated resources nor adequate banking participation can offer stable guarantees of wealth for a country. Only through constant and systematic effort in agriculture can returns be guaranteed over fixed periods of time and in perceptible amounts. The other method—abandonment of the forests to reapers who do not sow—means continuance of the present state of affairs, where balsa and rubber have brought high

prices at their source and have prevented the development of the true agriculture which is permanent and which does not depend on the vagaries of war or on the sudden effectiveness of agreements, as happened in the case of balsa, a drop in the price of which ruined many people.

But, for the time being, there is the enormous, the incalculable forest wealth, which acts as a spur to all beginning farmers. Any Ecuadorean who has taken the trouble to become acquainted with his country knows that the story about a crisis in the matter of forestation is a myth. Someone has advised that on Arbor Day every Ecuadorean should go to the forests in Manabí or Esmeraldas and cut down a tree to help clear the way for the highways that will redeem our country.

Guatemala's New School of Agriculture

OUTSTANDING among the educational facilities of the new school is the modern building in semi-colonial style, constructed on the flattest part of the property, at 4,800 feet above sea level. Its location at some 12 miles from the capital makes possible its immediate supervision by the higher authorities, while its rural surroundings afford an environment favorable to study.

The building is in a simple but elegant style, and constructed so as to be earthquake proof. It faces north and south, a wide entrance way in the middle dividing it into two wings. The west wing was the old ranch house, and the east wing is new. In the center of the building is a beautiful patio, light and airy. Spacious corridors lead to the classrooms and offices, installed in the following order: administrative office, secretarial division, library, inspector's office, information office, five class rooms, general library, dining room, kitchen, larder, dormitory, and four laboratories.

The peculiar advantages of the property consist in its considerable area of over three thousand acres; its varying altitude (it ranges from 4,000 to 7,500 feet above sea level), which affords climatic ranges favorable for cultivating many different crops, for raising cattle and domestic fowl, and for keeping bees; and a rich and varied flora, which not only will help in the projects mentioned, but will make possible a study of native wild plants.

Fields already planted with coffee, corn, beans, rice, pigeon peas, sugar cane, garden vegetables, orange, plum and other fruit trees which number thousands; acres of hayfields,

and other kinds of cultivated and wild pasture; all these resources will contribute materially to the practical training course which the school administration is planning, besides the experiments with new crops which are already being introduced.

For studies and experiments in cattle raising, a modern stable is being completed, with room for forty-eight animals and special separate stalls for bulls and calves. At present the herd includes several head of pure Brown Swiss and Holstein, two bulls, and some forty cows and steers, native and half-Holstein, which will be used for experiments in this important industry.

With due regard to the valuable services which livestock gives the farmer, the ranch has also a number of draft animals, eighty oxen and more than a hundred horses, mules, and burros.

This important element in the constitution of a ranch, something which undoubtedly was conspicuously absent before in the experiments of the school, will help future experts to learn to combine local resources with modern implements. That is, they will learn to make up for the lack of fuel and, to a certain extent, of tractors, by using animals to pull farm implements, insofar as possible, thus applying one of the principles of agricultural economy without departing from the practices of modern technology.

As a parallel to the studies of scientific cattle breeding, modern equipment has been acquired for the manufacture of dairy products, so that the boys will learn to make butter and all kinds of cheeses. Two rooms have been allotted for these classes, with their respective laboratories where daily bacteriological examinations may be made.

In other adjacent lots, modern pigsties and



THE GUATEMALAN SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE

Instruction in good agricultural methods and practice is helping the Guatemalans, like many other farmers throughout the Americas, to get a better return from their land.

poultry yards have been installed. And for experiments in bee-keeping, there is the ranch's apiary of 107 hives which, in view of the abundant flora surrounding it, is surely destined to become larger and better.

For instruction in the rudiments of forestry, adequate nurseries are being prepared which include examples of all the species of forest trees in the country.

In another special place a vegetable garden

is under cultivation, and its products are already being used for the school and put on sale in nearby markets.

And finally we have the agricultural machinery which complements the modern organization of the school and holds a key place in its functioning, since the best use of all the natural resources placed at the disposal of the students will depend on these tools.

Haiti's Five-Year Plan

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY:

My Government, by reason of the state of war and the international obligations which we voluntarily contracted for the defense of the American continent and the liberty of the Haitian people, has thus far had to concentrate on and limit its activities in the economic field to the safeguarding of our immediate interests, solving from day to day the numerous problems arising from the world crisis.

We can congratulate ourselves today on the wise measures that have been taken in these grave and perilous circumstances. Our present excellent budgetary and general financial situation bears favorable witness to the conscientious and intelligent administration

Message of the President of Haiti to the Secretaries of State for National Economy, Foreign Affairs, Agriculture, Public Works, and the Under-Secretary of State for the Presidency. Haiti-Journal, Port-au-Prince, le 4 octobre, 1944.

which our various public services have enjoyed during this critical period.

The success of the Allied armies on the battlefronts forecasts certain victory over the forces of evil. The normalization of commercial relations which we may look for in the post-war period should find the country prepared and balanced, so that it may be ready to meet its obligations without interruption and at the same time to assure a rational economic and social development.

Consequently I am informing you that I have decided to formulate a five-year plan to serve as the foundation of the Government's future political action. The administrative departments which to my mind should particularly cooperate in outlining such a project are the Departments of National Economy, Agriculture, Public Works, Foreign Affairs, and the Presidency.

I should like you to prepare plans covering your respective departments for a five-year period, and I wish to stress the point that the plans submitted to me should in-



LEARNING NEW AGRICULTURAL METHODS IN HAITI

The President of Haiti has called upon members of his cabinet to draw up a five-year plan for the integration of the country's postwar economy.

clude a rough estimate on an annual basis which will clearly bring out proposed objectives and the results to be periodically attained. Since I consider united action to be essential, I am asking you to form a committee to carry out these instructions.

I am taking this occasion also to emphasize my aims:

a) Improvement by irrigation of the largest possible land area, with a view to increasing our production of food crops; an increase in our production of coffee, cacao, and cotton; and the scientific development of our livestock industry.

b) Construction of a paved highway from Port-au-Prince to Cap Haïtien. This road, so long desired, will be the main artery from the economic standpoint and, from the tourist travel standpoint it will constitute the principal section of an interior network that will give to our historic monuments, particularly the Citadelle Laferrière, a much more advantageous place than they now occupy.

And eventually we must plan a similar paved road linking Les Caves to Port-au-Prince.

c) Construction of other roads into the interior, suitable for the transit of jeeps, which will open up the lands put into agricultural use in even the most remote regions of the country.

d) Organization of our coastwise shipping and development of a maritime service in the Caribbean area.

e) Establishment of a program of action and tourist publicity to encourage travel.

f) Development of small industries.

I am asking you to take the necessary steps so that the general plan and the estimates can be submitted to me not later than December 31, 1944.

In the hope that you will take full cognizance of the importance which I attach to your labors, I reiterate to you the assurances of my high esteem.

E. LESCOT

Forest Wealth of Honduras

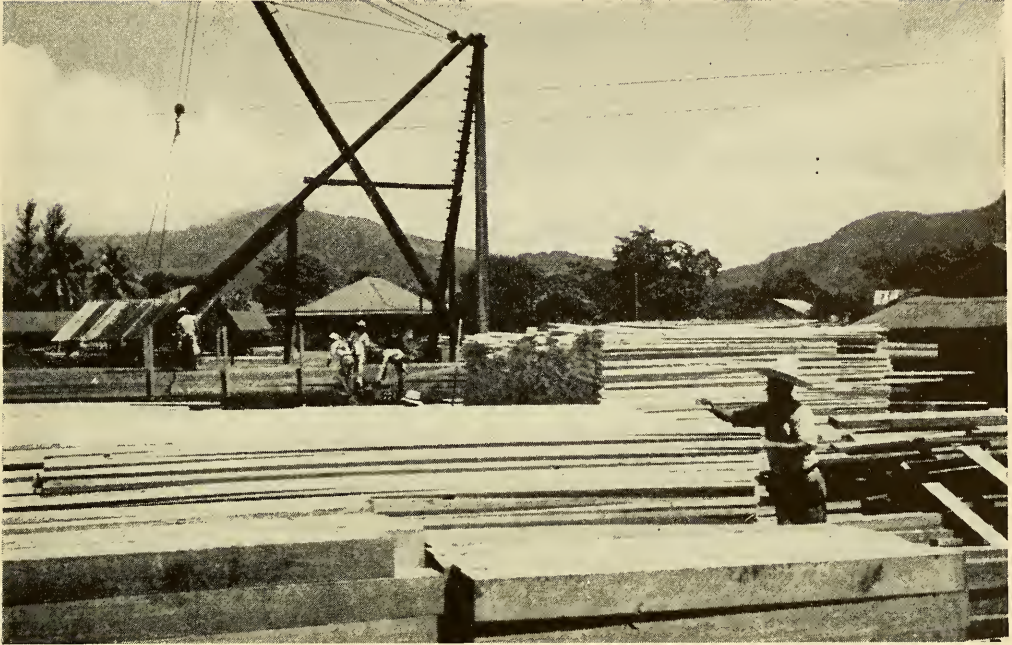
JOAQUÍN BURGOS

THE forest wealth of Honduras may be considered relatively large in proportion to its territory and population. . . .

A traveler going up and down along the mountain roads, crossing extensive valleys such as those of Comayagua, Yoro, Olancho, and Jamastrán, notes the density of the centuries-old forests and jungles, where there is an immense variety of trees of all sizes and kinds. We still, however, do not have even approximate statistics of the number of trees of each kind in the various Departments. . . .

Olancho is rich in cedar and mahogany in the regions near the Patuca, as well as in the basins of the other rivers flowing towards

Mosquitia. This vast expanse has perhaps the greatest number of trees of all kinds, among which the sapodilla, which yields chicle, abounds. There are also many pine forests along the boundary with Nicaragua. As for Colón, Yoro, Cortés, Santa Bárbara, Copán, Gracias, La Esperanza, La Paz, Comayagua, Choluteca, and El Paraíso, their mountains and valleys contain great forests of trees from which lumber suitable for building and cabinet work may be obtained. In almost all these departments there are liquid-amber trees which are very little exploited, and in the central part of the country pine trees cover the plateaus as, for instance, around Tegucigalpa. If the forest wealth of Honduras were properly regulated and utilized it could support the development of advantageous industries such as paper manu-



Courtesy of CIAA

A HONDURAN LUMBER YARD

The forest wealth of Honduras, in variety and number of trees, is very considerable.

facturing, because the whole country is crossed by numerous rivers from which hydraulic power could be developed. The falls on the Lindo river in the Department of Cortés are indeed beautiful; the river also waters important wooded districts and land on which almost any crop can be grown.

In towns and villages the pernicious practice still exists of clearing the forests for corn fields; cedars, mahogany, and quebracho trees, and other useful kinds are felled with no other purpose than to grow one or two corn crops on the virgin soil, while the valuable wood goes to waste.

It is urgently necessary to enact a law

regulating the distribution of communal lands. Municipalities also should control the use of their lands and stop the criminal destruction of the forests.

To develop agricultural and industrial enterprises and increase the national wealth in the interior of the country, we must construct roads, since there are no railroads. The Departments of Olancho and Yoro, because of their geographic location in relation to the coast and frontier, their extent and their natural wealth, should be placed in communication with the capital and the north coast by highways over which large trucks can run.

Domestic Trade in Mexico

THE agriculture, as well as the industry of a country, must find solid bases for its development in domestic consumption; that is to say, in the consumption of its products by the inhabitants of the country itself. An economy based principally on placing raw or processed products in foreign markets is always an unstable economy because with rare exceptions it is at the mercy of the play of international trade. . . .

These considerations justify the desirability of Mexico's trying to increase its home consumption and to facilitate trade in the agricultural and industrial commodities which it is capable of producing, in order that such products may be acquired in the greatest possible quantity by Mexicans themselves. There is no doubt that a significant increase in the domestic commerce of our country is still retarded by two profoundly important factors: first, the low purchasing power of a very large part of our population, and second, the still incomplete development of our communications system and the lack of means of transportation adequate for full utilization of the rail and highway routes which we already have. . . .

The ejidatario has obtained undeniable and appreciable benefits from the Agrarian Reform. . . . But it is still difficult for him to spend even a part of his small income for certain agricultural food products from other regions of the country, or for manufactured articles which would permit him to approach a minimum standard of living.

As for communications, Mexico senses and is giving constant heed to the necessity of increasing the length of its roads and railways to handle the increased production re-

sulting from the Agrarian Reform. There are many areas in the country that are unproductive because they lack communication with the rest of the Republic, and there are also numerous other areas which for the same reason cannot market what they produce. In certain regions fruits and other crops are raised which must be sold for a paltry sum, sometimes almost nothing, because there is no communication system and therefore no way to send commodities out of their place of origin to market. In other cases this lack of communications leads producers to think only of exportation as a means of moving their products, for it is easier and more economical to send merchandise abroad by sea than to direct it to the interior of the country. . . .

Much agricultural production is localized in the various states, and the same is true of most of the products of industry, which in the majority of cases is likewise concentrated in certain states or even in fixed areas of states. . . .

These viewpoints can be linked together in one prime consideration: the need for private commerce, producers, and consumers to establish an interstate trade system for many Mexican products which at present are consumed within the country in very small proportions. The existence of an extensive commercial system or network, which could very well be based on a simple broadening of the activities of various organizations already concerned with trade in certain indispensable articles, would be of enormous usefulness to the economic progress of Mexico. Such action would influence the quantity of our production by providing an outlet for a greater volume of goods, and production activities would be stimulated in both the agricultural and the industrial fields. . . .

Of course, it should not be deduced from

From an article in "Planificación," Secretaría General de la Comisión de Coordinación Económica Nacional, México, 6 de septiembre 1944.



Photograph by W. B. Larsen

A COMMERCIAL DISTRICT IN MEXICO CITY

Mexican economists feel that their country should increase domestic consumption by facilitating the shipment of agricultural and industrial commodities from one part of the country to another.

this that we should let domestic trade eclipse our foreign trade. Nothing is farther from our aim. The preservation of our foreign markets and the pace of our exports is vital to our economy; the loss of a market for any product is irreparable and could only be considered as extremely prejudicial to our

country. We must preserve what we have won in the field of foreign trade. But that by no means excludes the possibility of also intensifying our home trade by giving due attention to its increasing demands, with resultant beneficial increases in national production. Meanwhile we must be prepared to

absorb within the country any portions of the production of any commodity that cannot be disposed of abroad; the absorption of such surpluses at home will serve to increase the home demand for many of our national agricultural and other products.

In this urgent phase of the establishment of an interstate system for the exchange of

goods, we consider that a highly important role devolves upon the Mixed Councils of Regional Economy and the Municipal and Local Economic Councils. These are appropriate and already existing organizations that could take the matter up with their central office, the National Economic Coordination Commission.

War Production in Nicaragua

THE first cooperative project for increasing war production in the Latin American republics was worked out in the United States. With the help of American experts, Nicaragua has played its part in that project through a joint program which has been put into execution by the government. The value of our contribution to the triumph of Allied arms is attested by Mr. Adrian A. Walser, American director of the Commission of Food Specialists, who was sent by the Institute of Inter-American Affairs to cooperate in the project just mentioned; he states that Nicaragua is producing an exportable surplus.

This cooperative program has been in effect for more than a year, during which time we have succeeded in harvesting and storing more than 200 tons of rice, more than 10 tons of corn, and more than 5 tons of beans.

Walser said in Washington, when he returned from his visit here, that Nicaragua produces the most rubber of any Central American country; most of the crop has been sold to the Rubber Development Corporation and to lumber contractors.

An important aspect of the program under discussion was the training provided in Managua, where 33 youths received instruction in the basic principles of modern agriculture. These boys built their own dormitories and managed an experimental farm.

Thanks to this American initiative, one of the fine fruits of the Good Neighbor Policy, roads, bridges, and airports have been



Courtesy of CIAA

NICARAGUA PRODUCES CRUDE RUBBER

Nicaragua has shared in the production of crude rubber as a contribution to the war effort of the United Nations.

built in the forest lands around the Río Coco, and in June 1943 the rich soil of that region was turned by the plow for the first time.

To facilitate the development of this profitable piece of international cooperation, small farm implements were sold at cost to

the planters, and the Nicaraguan government gave the land for two granaries, one at Billvas Karma and the other at Cape Gracias, near the mouth of the Río Coco.

Mr. Walser ended his statement by saying that the program offered promising prospects for the whole country.

Alcoholic Beverages in Panama

RICHARD F. BEHRENDT

Director, Institute of Social and Economic Research, and Professor of Political Economy and Sociology, Inter-American University

IN PANAMA the alcoholic beverage industry and trade have reached a position of extraordinary importance, from the standpoint of both the national economy in general and the public treasury in particular. Nationally brewed beer is one of the Republic's principal export commodities, and foreign-made liquors constitute one of the most important items of reexportation, or, as they are called, invisible reexports. In both these facts is reflected the effect of the peculiar geographical and administrative situation of the Isthmus with its sales to residents of the Canal Zone and the United States Army camps on the Isthmus. These beverage sales, as well as those of Panamanian meat, farm, and fruit products to the same purchasers, should be considered exports, exactly as if they were sent abroad, inasmuch as they are bought with funds of foreign origin. It is desirable that this class of exports be fully registered and regularly included in the Republic's foreign trade statistics, in order to secure a complete and true picture of the country's

visible exports—something which is not achieved at present.

Furthermore, very considerable quantities of Panamanian beer and imported liquors are sold to residents of the Canal Zone and to transient foreigners in beer gardens, canteens, restaurants, and other establishments in territory under the jurisdiction of the Republic of Panama. It is evident that these sales constitute invisible exports and reexports, but they now escape all statistical records. It is therefore impossible to determine exactly the amount of alcoholic beverages sold to foreigners or consumed by nationals and residents.

With reference to quantities of alcoholic beverages, it is interesting to make the following comparison between those produced at home and the imports. In 1942 and 1943, national industry produced a total of approximately 7,286,000 gallons and 8,135,000 gallons, respectively. Of these totals, more than 90 percent was beer, and the other 10 percent consisted principally of rum. Aguardiente, whisky, gin, anisette, wines, and various liqueurs were also manufactured but in lesser, sometimes relatively insignificant, amounts.

Alcoholic beverage imports reached only

Extracted from La Industria y el Comercio de Bebidas Alcohólicas en la Economía de Panamá, in Bulletin of the Institute of Social and Economic Research, Inter-American University, Panama, July 1944.



PANAMA CITY

In Panama liquor manufacture, especially brewing, and the sale of alcoholic beverages produces twenty percent or more of national revenues.

the comparatively modest figures of approximately 501,150 gallons in 1942 and 519,000 gallons in 1943. The majority of these imports were whiskies, wines, rum, and cognac; in other words, beverages of high unit value. On the other hand, imported beer, which has a low unit value, was very insignificant in both quantity and total value.

The income which the National Treasury received from alcoholic beverages in each of the last three years is represented by the fol-

lowing percentages: 1941, 16.1 percent; 1942, 24.4 percent; and 1943, 21.8 percent. A very considerable increase is therefore apparent, in both the absolute and the relative sense. It can be affirmed that, in addition to income received for public welfare from the National Lottery and the tax on gambling, the yield of taxes on alcoholic beverage production and trade has been responsible for a notable increase in Treasury receipts during recent years.

Industrialization in Paraguay

OUR economy during the year 1943-44 was governed by the same factors that prevailed

From the Report of the Chamber of Commerce of Paraguay, 1943-44. Boletín de la Cámara de Comercio Argentino-Paraguaya, Buenos Aires, agosto 1944.

during the period covered by our preceding report. The world war is still going on. Its effects increased in intensity last year and its complex consequences raise the most unanswerable questions in all fields. Every day renders more difficult and more venture-

some not only a forecast but even a simple conjecture as to the future that will follow in the wake of this great blaze that covers almost the whole of the earth. The only certain thing is that the world will have to undergo an essential change, because the turmoil now shaking it to its very roots will leave little that is stable in the foundations of its present structure.

What the future holds is unknown—which serves only to clothe with more confusion the perplexity of minds aware of the situation. So we reiterate that we must mark out our steps with the utmost caution; no lightness of thinking must lead us to a point where we can find no remedy for our lack of foresight. Paraguay—we have said before and we say it again—is without doubt one of the countries most fortunately placed as far as the effects of the world conflict are concerned. For this very reason there is danger in any tendency toward a sense of well-

being that makes us forget realities. The hand extended because of principles of American solidarity is helping us to meet and solve in part some of the problems that are basic to our economy and to other vital aspects of our national life; but the day will come when contractual obligations will have been fulfilled and then complacent laxity will be confronted with the consequent realities.

Paraguay still preserves its traditional economy, the cornerstone of which is the nation's still somewhat rudimentary agriculture and stock-raising. The country's development toward industrialization moves slowly, beset by many difficulties. In the first place, it seems that the time has not yet arrived for industrial development to acquire a definite and vigorous momentum. The population factor, which limits the domestic consumption market, does not favor such development, and a low purchasing



Courtesy of Mary Kirby

ALONG THE PARAGUAY RIVER AT ASUNCIÓN

Because of Paraguay's inland situation, freight rates to the coast by boat or rail impose a handicap on its foreign trade.

power, resulting from a general state of poverty, likewise acts as a restraint. Nor have credit operations reached the stage where they can be of real aid to industrial growth. We have repeatedly gone on record as favoring a system of bank loans adapted to the peculiar requirements of industry, the processes of which are not compatible with that now existing for commerce.

Nevertheless, in recent years some progress has been made which at least reflects a new direction and marks a point of departure. The textile industry, manufacturing wool, silk, and cotton goods, has been established on a scale sufficient to supply a wide margin of the country's requirements at a time when foreign goods are difficult to obtain. There is also a budding glass industry and a fiber hat industry which the initiative of enterprising men led them to start and develop. But for the rest, it seems fitting to contemplate for Paraguay for some time yet to come a continuance of its present economic structure and therefore we must help toward perfecting that economy by rationalizing its methods, increasing the purchasing power of the population, and assuring the necessary markets—all of this being the indispensable antecedent to the development of a real industrial economy. We must swing toward such a development, even if only with respect, at least in the initial phase, to the industrialization of those products

which today we export without processing and which in their natural state incur additional freight charges.

Industrialization, of course, requires costly equipment. To pay for it the country must produce more and must raise its standard of living, in order that a greater consumption may reduce the cost per item. At present this problem is influenced by the uncertainties that becloud the post-war horizon, especially with regard to markets. Freight charges, to which Paraguay has thus far had to pay inexcusable tribute because of its geographic position, create special conditions which, as a country with export possibilities, it must face in competing for a place in world markets. At the same time, those freight rates should represent indirect and efficient protection for production destined for domestic consumption, although in reality this has not been so. This latter condition, from which our production should be protected by suitable measures, would seem to illustrate the impotence of industry in a market of extremely low buying capacity. Our national economic problem is still further complicated by—if indeed it does not have its origin in—the impossibility of distributing products which would not only yield compensatory returns to their producers but would also relieve the continuous shortages in areas where the products cannot now be practicably sent. . . .

The Industrialization of Peru's Mineral Production

PERU produces the following metals: gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, bismuth, antimony, molybdenum, tungsten, and vanadium, and small quantities of tin, manganese, and magnesium, besides non-metallic minerals such as

coal, oil, sulphur, lime, mica, salt, and gypsum, but the greater part of its production, especially that of metals, is exported in the form of crude ores, concentrates, or partly processed products, such as blister copper, containing gold and silver, or such as mattes and unrefined metals. The refine-

ment and preparation of these metals for immediate consumption would be an excellent thing for the national economy, and very much in accord with present ideas, which hold that countries producing raw materials should develop their manufacturing activities, preferably processing their own products. Some steps have been taken in this direction and the results have been so beneficial to the country that it would be advantageous to follow that policy, extending it to other metals and non-metallic products.

Let us take the case of silver, to which we have referred on numerous occasions and of which Peru is the third or fourth largest producer in the world. Until a few years ago all of our country's silver was exported in copper bars, in ore, in mattes, in sulphide leachings, or in lead bars. This went on until someone had the happy idea of building a silver refinery at La Oroya. From then on the Peruvian silver industry, which is extremely ancient, has been able to develop and perfect itself in the manufacture of all kinds of useful and ornamental articles, giving remunerative occupation to thousands of workers, in spite of the fact that we refine and manufacture only five to ten percent of the silver we produce.

Petroleum, too, is converted into all the numerous products that can be extracted from it, but copper is an example of what happens to some of our metals, being entirely exported in bars, ore, and concentrates. Yet nothing is so highly profitable as the conversion of copper bars, and even electrolytic copper, into certain manufactured products. In January 1940, when the Temporary National Economic Committee, under the chairmanship of Senator O'Mahoney, was investigating the policy of the United States copper industry, the distinguished consulting mining engineer Arthur Notman, one of the principal authorities on the industry, stated that the

price differential between electrolytic copper and certain manufactured products had increased considerably from 1909 to 1912, and from 1935 to 1938. Thus in the first period, the differential between electrolytic copper f.o.b. refineries and copper wire was 1.38 cents per pound; this differential had increased in 1938 to 3.5 cents per pound. And the differential between electrolytic copper and copper sheet, 4.73 cents per pound in the earlier period, increased to 7.85 cents per pound in the later period, which means that the conversion of one pound of copper into sheets represents an increased profit of almost 66 percent. We understand that a pilot copper refinery is being installed in La Oroya. We should see that this process of expansion is continued and that it includes, in the near future, the refinement and manufacture of all the copper we produce since, we repeat, there can be no better industrial policy than one directed toward the conversion of a country's own raw materials.

The majority of the lead produced in Peru is refined here, and is used for the manufacture within the country of many products for plumbing, etc., for domestic consumption. The problem here is to expand that industry, in accordance with the idea previously expressed, to include the conversion of all our lead production into articles for export.

With respect to zinc, our production in the form of refined zinc is still very low, not even meeting internal needs. It is true that the refinement of zinc requires a considerable quantity of electric power, but we have great waterfalls in the sierra for that.

Tungsten, vanadium and molybdenum are metals recently linked with the steel industry, and their use in Peru will be a consequence of the production of iron and steel. This production will be achieved when the blast furnaces are installed at Chimbote, a project which the government is carrying out.



COPPER SMELTING IN PERU

A more extensive industrialization of the petroleum, copper, silver, lead, zinc, tungsten, vanadium, molybdenum, and gold produced in Peru would improve the country's economy.

Some of the gold produced is used in dental work and in jewelry. For the former it must have a certain fineness and for the latter it must be refined and alloyed with a certain amount of copper, which gives it a heightened color and the necessary hardness for the fabrication of jewelry. Thus Peru might be the direct exporter of gold for dentistry and for the manufacture of luxury

articles in this medium.

This is not the moment to cite figures, but it is obvious that the value of our mineral production would be increased by perhaps more than fifty percent by its industrialization alone, without taking into account all the added stimulus which the production of refined metals and their direct use in industry brings to other activities.

Foreign Trade of the United States

. . . SINCE the middle of 1943 American exports have been running at the level of about 14 billion dollars a year. Before the war the annual average was 3 billion dollars. The expansion is unprecedented. It is the product of a war that is being vigorously prosecuted in both the European and the Pacific theatres. Exports to the United Kingdom, the U. S. S. R., and the Mediterranean and African regions, which before the war amounted to less than three-quarters of a billion dollars a year, have grown to nearly 10 billion dollars. Exports to China, India, Australia, and New Zealand have grown from about 200 million dollars a year to nearly 1,300 million dollars. Within the Western Hemisphere the expansion has been less striking. Nevertheless, there has been a tripling of exports to Canada, this nation's second largest customer in time of peace; and even to Latin America, which is predominantly agricultural and which has not been absorbed in producing the munitions and equipment of war, the flow of exports has been substantially enlarged.

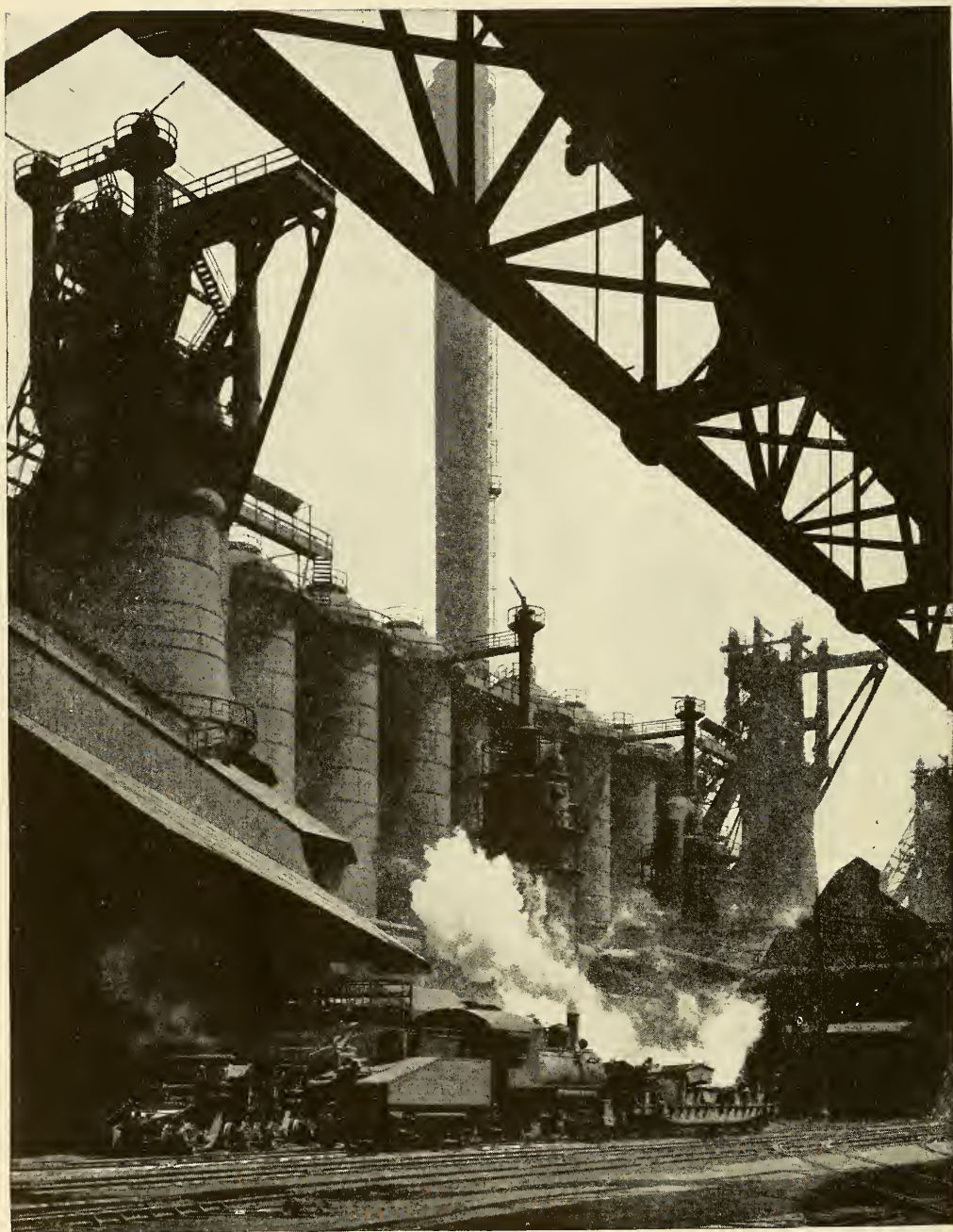
While this vast trade was building up under the urgent pressures of war and despite the submarine, important regions were placed temporarily beyond our reach. Most of the continent of Europe was either occupied by the enemy or blockaded. The same was true of the Malay States, the Netherlands East Indies, and other areas under Japanese control. The areas that were largely sealed off from American trade had taken a billion dollars of our goods a year before the war. . . .

Agricultural exports represent a type of

commodity that will be consumed in even larger volume in the postwar period; but there is little reason to believe that the world will continue to draw agricultural commodities from the United States on the present scale once the period of relief and reconstruction has passed. The United Kingdom is now taking under Lend-Lease alone agricultural products more than four times the value of our prewar shipments. The abnormalities are even more apparent in the case of the U. S. S. R., which in ordinary times can largely feed and clothe itself. Output of agricultural products for domestic consumption will revive abroad, and other agricultural exporting countries will regain their positions in world trade. As the postwar transition period passes it seems probable that the basic trend in the export trade of the United States from agricultural products, in which this country had the strongest competitive position in the nineteenth century, toward those manufactures in which we now dominate world markets will reassert itself, and that from this standpoint the agricultural component of our wartime trade can not be regarded as carrying a promise of permanence.

Merchandise imports to this country have also been stimulated by the war; but more than half of the rise from the 2.5 billion dollar average of the prewar years to the current annual rate of 4 billion dollars appears to be due to an advance in prices. . . .

How far the rise in imports carries and whether it can be sustained and increased in the postwar period will be one of the determining factors in the future of this country's export trade. The ability of foreigners to buy civilian goods from the United States in the postwar period will



Courtesy of Carnegie Steel Corporation

AN AMERICAN STEEL MILL

Although American agricultural exports have increased tremendously during the war, it is thought that after the time of reconstruction and rehabilitation has passed they will diminish and manufactures will again take first place.

largely depend upon their ability to get command of dollars. At present the supply of goods available for export is a limiting factor. The crucial test will come after the shortage of civilian goods in our own markets begins to be relieved. Until then it may be necessary to continue the wartime controls in many types of goods that foreigners as well as our own citizens will want to buy. As reconversion is accomplished, however, it seems unquestionable that the vast productive powers of this country can be most effectively employed only if a much greater foreign trade is carried on with the world than before the war.

Other factors than merchandise imports will help to put into foreign hands the

dollars that will be needed if the great postwar readjustments in our export trade are to be accomplished without excessive shrinkage in the aggregate. American use of foreign shipping will help; but in view of the unequaled merchant marine which this country has created during the war, American use of foreign shipping is unlikely to be greater than before the war even with a greatly expanded trade. American travel in foreign countries will also help, and can be counted upon to do so on a far more extensive scale than before the war. More problematical is the question whether American capital will venture abroad again in generous amounts, if governmental assistance is not forthcoming.

Agriculture and Stockraising in Uruguay

JOSÉ MARÍA ELORZA

President of the Rural Federation

AGRICULTURAL and livestock production in Uruguay has undergone little variation in volume since 1939. Similarly, Uruguayan exports have experienced few changes, with the exception of wool during the last two years (which can be considered a favorable factor) and meat, the exportation of which increased in 1943 owing to forced sales because of the drought. Unfortunately, the latter will have a corrective entry on this year's books which will more than offset last year's figures. The immediate prospect is for a deficit in the amount of meat to be sold abroad, resulting from the decrease in the number of head of cattle. There is hope,

however, for an increase in wool production, if climatic factors do not work against it.

The income which the farmer and livestock man should receive will vary but little; if the producers do not experience a decrease, it will be because of strengthened prices for various products. But this single fact, when one duly considers the characteristic fluctuations in production, will not permit producers to pay new taxes or charges without feeling very grave effects; their economy has been too severely affected by the abnormal weather and the animal disease epidemics that have occurred since the spring of 1942.

Uruguay has been, is, and will be for many decades yet to come a stockraising nation. Since nature has cut out this pattern for the republic and Uruguayans have followed it intelligently, the new organization contem-

From an address delivered at the opening session of the 28th Congress of the Rural Federation held at Rivera, April 29, 1944. Revista de la Federación Rural, Montevideo, julio 1944.

plated for the world would seem to provide a favorable framework for its continuance. But even though there may be no marked basic change in our economy, still in planning and intensity of effort our development will have to aim for a new and extraordinary perfection. We must concentrate on increased breeding of fine livestock. It is imperative that such an undertaking be backed by the nation as a whole, in a true spirit of national solidarity. The program can and should be broad, with no fear of its being carried to excess, if only people and government work with a will.

We must first of all understand what a

great task we have before us and must set to work forthwith. We need more suitable and conveniently located housing facilities, more grazing areas on the cattle ranches, more watering places, more dipping tanks and vats for the treatment and care of livestock, more meadows sown to grass or forage crops wherever possible and economical, and more animal shelters, especially for sheep, which should be protected from the rain. All this will cost many millions of pesos over the next twelve or fifteen years. For each hundred pesos of land valuation, ten, twenty, or thirty pesos must be expended in new improvements. . . .



A HERD OF URUGUAYAN CATTLE

The president of the Uruguayan Rural Society advises stockraisers to improve their ranches by better stock and pasture, more shelters for sheep, and convenient housing for farm workers.

Venezuelan Agricultural Policy

FOR some crops a substantial increase in production has been achieved. Potatoes, for instance, even though seed has to be brought in, are being raised in quantities sufficient to meet national consumption, so that the country has not had to resort to imports. Nevertheless the Ministry of Agriculture is endeavoring to increase present production figures still further, in order to bring about lower prices and thus increase consumption. Rice production has been brought to nearly 20,000 tons, which means that a small additional effort on the part of the growers will soon make it possible to supply the total consumption. In 1943 only 1,620 tons had to be imported, as compared with 12,630 tons in 1942 and 21,660 tons in 1941. The year's sugar crop surpassed that of previous years, as may be seen from the fact that the domestic demand was fully met; the yield was estimated at about 38,500 tons, which gave a surplus over the needs of consumers. Part of this surplus has been exported to the neighboring Antilles, in order to save sugar-growers from a ruinous drop in price.

During the year 1943 exports of farm products, as indicated by the licenses issued, amounted to 46,250 tons, with a value of 18,919,786 bolívares, as compared with 8,367,195 bolívares in 1942.¹

Here a separate paragraph may well be devoted to cotton production, since 68,515 acres were planted to cotton in 1943, 15,150 more than the area under cultivation in the previous year. In spite of criticisms directed at this Ministry, disparaging its scientific merits and its economic assistance to cotton growers, the results obtained speak for

themselves. The ginned cotton crop is estimated at about 20,800 bales of 480 pounds each, and it is believed that this, with the raw material in the possession of textile mills, will fill the requirements of the industry without any substantial imports. It should be noted that the yield for the previous year was 15,150 bales, so that there has been an increase of 5,650 bales. It should not be forgotten that since Venezuela's textile industry continues to expand in line with the intensification of Venezuelan manufacturing, the country's cotton prospects look more and more promising, and can always provide a profitable investment for private capital.

It is true that here, as almost everywhere, the cotton crop has suffered from the pests to which it is susceptible, and that these pests have caused a partial loss of harvests on which many growers had centered their hopes for greater profits; but the Ministry of Agriculture and Stockraising has done everything it could on behalf of cotton growers, and has always placed all its resources at their service. Although this year's cotton campaign, which has been the object of the special solicitude just mentioned, failed because of the pests to yield the returns that were expected, it was nevertheless more satisfactory than those of previous years. To bring about further improvement, the Office has arranged for the services of a geneticist from the United States, who is engaged in controlling and directing the production and selection of varieties of seed that will help to increase cotton production in Venezuela.

Another crop which has been greatly increased in the course of the year is sisal. Mention need only be made of the plantings in the State of Lara, which already amount to nearly 6,000 acres with 6,000,000 plants. In Mérida and Táchira also, and in the

Memoria y Cuenta de Agricultura y Cría, Tomo 1, 1944, Venezuela.

¹The exchange value of the bolívar on December 27, 1944, was 30.15 cents.

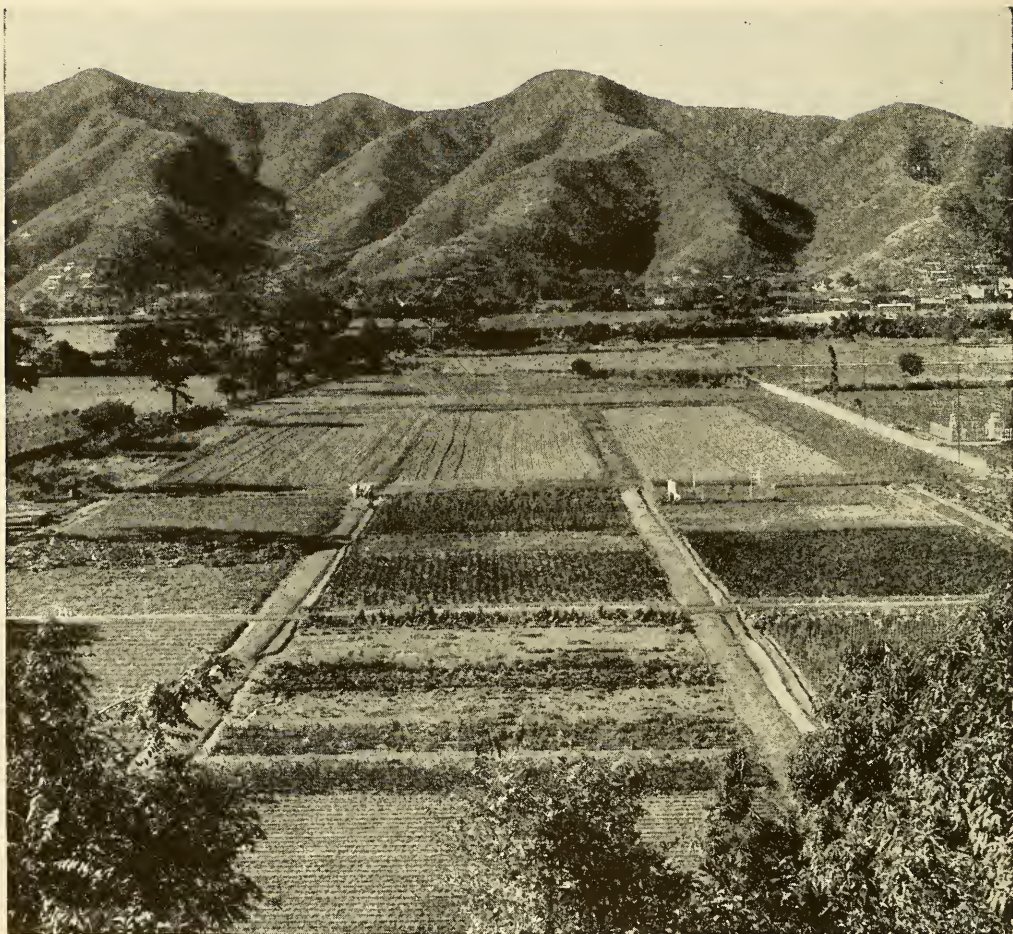


Foto Sabak

A VENEZUELAN EXPERIMENT STATION

Under the stimulation of the Ministry of Agriculture, Venezuela has been increasing the production of sisal and crop yields, especially those of rice, sugar, and cotton.

Island of Margarita, official activity has continued to promote this crop through a corps of experts engaged in demonstrating to growers practical methods for improving its cultivation. In the year covered by the report 393,000 seedlings were distributed, and 20 decorticating machines were ordered; 14 of these were sold and six delivered gratis to growers who proved that they had plantings already under way.

The Office has faithfully kept up its tech-

nical services for the promotion and protection of other branches of our agriculture. Tobacco, cereals, and oil-producing plants have received constant attention, in addition to the help that continues to be offered to farmers by providing selected seed.

Coffee exports reached 64,137,956 pounds, with a value of 38,683,229 bolívars; cacao exports were 33,045,157 pounds, 10,665,303 bolívars. Producers of coffee and cacao have had the benefit of the maintenance of

the crop dollar which was established for the purpose of protecting these crops, so important to our country's economy. In the course of the year the national government provided 8,654,356 bolívars in differential exchange to improve the situation of coffee and cacao growers. Moreover the Ministry is giving special attention, through its technical services in the coffee- and cacao-producing districts, to improvement of the production and quality of both crops; and the Ministry

plans to increase its efforts in view of the good results obtained.

Such a policy counts among its aims that of enabling growers to make larger investments in the improvement of their holdings, to develop their plantations with greater care, and to prepare their crops for market more suitably, in order that our coffee and cacao may continue to enjoy in foreign markets their solid credit and their well-earned prestige.

The Facts on the Coffee Situation

PAN AMERICAN COFFEE BUREAU¹
120 WALL STREET, NEW YORK

November 20, 1944.

MR. GEORGE C. THIERBACH, *President*
National Coffee Association
120 Wall St., New York

DEAR MR. THIERBACH:

In view of the various reports that have appeared for some time in the press of this country relative to both the supply and prices of coffee, and in view of recent statements from responsible sources to the effect that the responsibility for the solution of these problems rests with the producing countries, the Pan American Coffee Bureau has decided to submit to you a clarification of the factors involved in the great crisis which now faces the coffee industry of Latin America.

The Pan American Coffee Bureau has, without exception, always scrupulously abstained from expressing any opinion or taking any position with respect to any of the

war-time regulations or restrictions imposed in the United States.

As a foreign agency the Bureau has rigorously refrained from direct or indirect interference in any manner in subjects concerning the internal economy and policies of this country.

This policy has been strictly adhered to, as can be testified to by the National Coffee Association, and during recent years, so fraught with difficulties and problems for the coffee industry, the Bureau has concentrated on cooperating with the National Coffee Association, the various government agencies of the United States and the producing countries for removal of difficulties, an early solution of existing problems, and faithful adherence to all war-time regulations.

We have considered these policies as the least we could do in order to reciprocate the favorable and cooperative attitude shown by the government, the trade and the public of this country towards the Bureau and the entities which the Bureau represents.

However, it does not seem to me to be necessary to deviate from our policy in order to submit a concise statement of facts

¹The following countries are members of the Bureau: Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Mexico, Venezuela.



Courtesy of the National Coffee Department of Brazil

PICKING COFFEE

as they affect the coffee producing industry of the Western Hemisphere.

Following the outbreak of the European War, with its consequent closing of markets for about 10 million bags of coffee produced in Latin America, the price of coffee, already greatly depressed because of a long period of over-production, because of abandonment by Brazil of the price support policy which it followed until 1937, and because of restrictive tariffs in various consuming countries (colonial protection in Continental Europe and Imperial preference in

Canada and Great Britain), reached the lowest levels in history.

These disastrous levels, starvation prices, if permitted to continue for any length of time would have resulted in ruin for the coffee industry of Latin America, and in economic chaos for the 14 coffee producing countries of this Hemisphere.

Such a catastrophe would have resulted in deplorable social and political repercussions, would have opened the doors of the Americas to dangerous extremist ideologies which were making bold experiments in Europe;

and, what is most important, would have cut off vitally important markets in Latin America for United States industries.

The completion of the Inter-American Coffee Agreement, in which the United States participated, averted this calamity. The coffee market slowly recovered and prices reacted in a healthy manner until they reached, late in 1941, a level which was then acceptable or even satisfactory *when compared* to the disastrous depths to which they had fallen in 1940.

It should be noted at this point that the sole basis for the acceptability of these prices was the fact that they represented a partial recovery from the all time lows aforementioned, which obviously cannot be taken as a fair basis of comparison.

When war-time conditions made necessary price control in this country, green coffee prices were frozen at the levels prevailing in 1941, levels which as we have seen were at that time acceptable to the producers. However, it is clear that these so-called "recovery" prices of 1941 were far from remunerative, when it is considered that they were still about 5% below the average of the past 30 years.

Coffee prices still continue frozen on that basis today, at the end of 1944.

With this background, the present situation may be summarized as follows:

- a) The agricultural and industrial wages, local transportation, the cost of machinery and other articles which coffee producers import, etc., all rose substantially between 1941 and 1944 (in some cases up to more than 100%) which increases have been fully reflected in highly increased cost of coffee production. But the prices of coffee continue frozen on a 1941 basis and therefore, coffee producers at present have to produce coffee and to live in 1944 at 1944 costs while their income is frozen at 1941 levels.
- b) This state of affairs is already resulting in the abandonment of millions and millions of coffee trees throughout Latin America and in the

failure adequately to care for and maintain plantations still in production. If this situation is prolonged there will be an inevitable collapse of the coffee industry of Latin America. As the war stimulated the demand for meat, cotton, and grain, many producers have found a temporary and precarious compensation in raising cattle and growing other products. With the advent of peace and the restoration of local production in the countries devastated by the war, this temporary demand will cease and with it will cease the temporary income offered former coffee producers, whose situation will then be desperate.

- c) The apparent prosperity in the coffee producing countries, an appearance resulting from existing favorable international trade balances, is illusory and frankly misleading. Such balances result solely from the *impossibility of buying* in which these countries find themselves, from the impossibility of obtaining the instruments of production necessary for their activities and of obtaining many other essential articles of life. The restrictions imposed by the war have not permitted them to import, except in very limited quantities, agricultural and industrial machinery, railroad cars, mills, rails, trucks, automobiles, electrical equipment, and often did not permit them to import even spare parts, either new or used.

Now, the very modest industrial plants of these countries, their railroads, systems of urban transportation, highway rolling equipment, agricultural, industrial and transportation equipment, water transport facilities, coastal or interior, already deficient before the war, are today on the verge of collapse, in open process of disintegration through lack of replacements or even remotely adequate maintenance and repairs.

This is the sole reason for the existing balances, which will evaporate on the day the war-time restrictions which impede the purchases of material are removed. Such balances are actually not sufficient to renovate our agricultural and industrial equipment or to repair the depreciation caused by three years of excessive use without even a minimum of adequate maintenance and repairs.

- d) An increase in coffee prices sufficient to maintain economically in production the billions of coffee trees in Latin America, sufficient to prevent economic ruin in the various countries, sufficient to avoid the loss of valuable markets

for industries of the United States, would not constitute a sacrifice for the public because it would represent, at the most, about $\frac{1}{8}$ of a cent in the cost of a cup of coffee. This means that a consumer who drinks four regular cups a day would have his budget for coffee increased by about $\frac{1}{2}$ cent a day.

- e) If some readjustment is not made an unfortunate situation might arise which would prevent or disturb the free flow of coffee to the American market, just at a time when the shipping situation is such as to permit an ample supply of the product for United States needs.

Coffee producers cannot be forced to sell their coffee at a loss, i.e., below the cost of production, when the abandonment of plantation and the neglect of adequate cultivation of those which are still in production has already reduced the yield of coffee in some countries, and will reduce it even more in the coming crops due to the fact that neglect of the plantations for one year results in a reduced production which takes at least 3 years to return to original yield.

In the case of Brazil, unfavorable weather conditions and inadequate returns have reduced by more than 50% the last two crops.

- f) With reduced production on one hand, and with the impossibility of continuing to produce without suffering economic losses under present conditions on the other hand, it is only logical

that the producers, so badly squeezed for some time past, will not be able to sell in 1945 at 1941 prices.

It is our considered opinion that rationing would not be a solution because it would not permit the restoration of plantations already abandoned or being abandoned, thus adversely affecting the producers, the trade and the consumer.

This is the present situation of coffee as viewed and interpreted by the Pan American Coffee Bureau. The gravity of the menace which weighs over the Latin American producers who derive their livelihood from coffee, over the roasters, importers, brokers and distributors in the United States who deal in coffee, and over the public which has made coffee its favorite beverage, can hardly be exaggerated.

In conclusion, may I express to you personally and on behalf of the countries represented by the Bureau our great appreciation for the cooperation offered at all times to the Bureau by your Association.

Cordially yours,

EURICO PENTEADO

*Chairman of the Board of Directors
of the Pan American Coffee Bureau*



The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a

continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War and Adherence to the Joint Declarations by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATION OF WAR			Adherence to the Joint Declaration by the United Nations
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	⁸ Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	
Argentina.....	¹ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44				
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(³)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12- 8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12- 8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (⁴)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	⁶ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43
United States.....	(⁵)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42

¹ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, in view of Italy's having changed sides in the war in July 1943.

² The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

³ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁴ Mexico had no Treaty of Friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁵ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

⁶ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

⁷ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁸ Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations; at Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta*

Oficial; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XXXV

ARGENTINA

143a. July 20, 1944. Decree 19,059, prohibiting the sale and use of molasses for any purpose except the manufacture of alcohol in the distilleries of the production zones. (Mentioned in *La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, September 13, 1944.)

154a. July 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,192, providing for the creation under the National Public Health Office of a special committee to study means of obtaining quinine substitutes. (Mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, October 2, 1944.)

174a. September 2, 1944. Presidential Decree creating the National Register of Persons in the Service of Foreign Organizations, and setting forth regulations for the inscription of such persons. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, September 3, 1944.)

183a. September 12, 1944. Resolution of the Department of Industry and Commerce making specified exceptions regarding the use of molasses as prescribed by Decree No. 19,059 of July 20, 1944 (see 143a above). (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, September 13, 1944.)

185. September 13, 1944. Resolution, Department of Industry and Commerce, fixing the scope of Presidential Decree No. 20,263, of July 28, 1944 (see Argentina 151, BULLETIN, January 1945), governing prices of articles of prime necessity.

(*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, September 14, 1944.)

186. September 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 25,086, authorizing the Ministry of the Navy to buy back from the Swiss Government 6,867 tons of sugar which could not be exported because of the prohibition against sugar exports contained in Presidential Decree No. 125,159, July 18, 1942 (see Argentina 20i, BULLETIN, December 1942). (*Boletín Oficial*, October 5, 1944.)

187. September 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 25,325, requiring compliance with the provisions of Decree No. 20,192, July 29, 1944, regarding a study of quinine substitutes. (see 154a above). (*Boletín Oficial*, October 2, 1944.)

188. September 22, 1944. Presidential Decree abolishing the basic price for corn as of October 20, 1944. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, September 23, 1944.)

189. September 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 26,105, authorizing the Argentine Domestic Textile Corporation to form a company to manufacture dyes and prescribing regulations governing such organization. (*Boletín Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

190. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 26,213, authorizing the Agricultural Production Regulation Board to sell corn from the 1943-

1944 crop for forage at the same price as for corn used as fuel. (*Boletín Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

191. October 17, 1944. Presidential Decree prohibiting direct or indirect propaganda in favor of the countries with which the Argentine Republic has severed diplomatic relations, and ordering the closing of specified German and Italian newspapers. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, October 18, 1944.)

192. November 8, 1944. Decree authorizing the Secretary of Industry and Commerce to exercise control over firms belonging to citizens of belligerent non-American countries. (*The New York Times*, December 10, 1944.)

BOLIVIA

33. (Correction) January 22, 1944. (*El Diario*, September 15, 1944.)

BRAZIL

126. November 6, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7024, prescribing procedures governing the liquidation of the holdings of the Lage organization (coastwise shipping, shipyards, coal mines, construction companies, etc.), which were placed under government control by Decree-Law No. 4648, September 2, 1942 (see Brazil 41i, BULLETIN, December 1942 and April 1943). (*Boletim Aéreo* No. 323, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, November 10, 1944.)

COLOMBIA

128b₁. August 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1875, authorizing and regulating the importation of wheat for flour mills in certain parts of the country, and fixing prices for domestic wheat. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1944.)

132a. August 23, 1944. Resolution No. 519, National Price Control Office, making Resolution No. 514 of August 21, 1944 (see Colombia 131, BULLETIN, January 1945), which fixed prices for domestic cements, effective at once. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

139a. September 6, 1944. Resolution No. 540, National Price Control Office, fixing prices for cement made by a specified company. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

140a. September 11, 1944. Resolution No. 560, National Price Control Office, requiring that lard imported for the Department of Cundinamarca be distributed in accordance with the procedure prescribed for distribution of vegetable fats by Resolu-

tion No. 109 of February 17, 1944 (see Colombia 105, BULLETIN, June 1944) at prices fixed by Resolution No. 522 of August 24, 1944 (see Colombia 134, BULLETIN, January 1945), and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

140b. September 11, 1944. Resolution No. 561, National Price Control Office, prescribing penalties for selling goods subject to price control at short weight or in adulterated quality. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

140c. September 11, 1944. Resolution No. 562, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 515 of August 22, 1944 (see Colombia 132, BULLETIN, January 1945) to increase the price of flour made from imported wheat in the city of Medellín. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

142. September 13, 1944. Resolution No. 566, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum sale prices for various sizes of headless nails. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

143. September 13, 1944. Resolution No. 567, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum sale prices for various sizes and kinds of construction lumber in Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

144. September 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2217, prescribing procedures for importation of cement for public works as provided by Presidential Decree No. 2010 of August 19, 1944 (see Colombia 130, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, September 28, 1944.)

145. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2300, creating the National Supply Institute (*Instituto Nacional de Abastecimientos*) to facilitate production, importation, and distribution of articles of prime necessity and to regulate exportation and prices thereof. (*Diario Oficial*, October 5, 1944.)

146. September 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2316, suspending the authorization for importation of wheat provided in Presidential Decree No. 1875 of August 4, 1944 (see Colombia 128b₁ above). (*Diario Oficial*, October 6, 1944.)

147. October 3, 1944. Resolution No. 579, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 309 of May 5, 1944 (see Colombia 120, BULLETIN, September and October 1944) by fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, October 17, 1944.)

148. October 3, 1944. Resolution No. 580, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 344 of May 23, 1944 (see Colombia 122, BULLETIN, November 1944) by fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for certain brands of vegetable fats, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, October 17, 1944.)

COSTA RICA

171a. July 13, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2, creating a board to control the distribution of Costa Rica's quota of penicillin. (*La Gaceta*, July 16, 1944.)

173a. October 2, 1944. Notice, Economic Defense Board, announcing maximum prices for lard, butter, meat, milk, penicillin, and shoes. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, October 3, 1944.)

CUBA

666a. October 24, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3789, fixing the maximum retail price per pound of bread. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 25, 1944.)

671a. October 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3877, prescribing measures concerning compliance with the provisions of Decree No. 779 of February 15, 1944, regarding the control of profiteering in business and industry, and fixing penalties for non-compliance (see Cuba 529a, BULLETIN, July 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 8, 1944, p. 18345.)

673. November 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3902, fixing higher wholesale and retail prices for jerked beef throughout the Republic and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 9, 1944, p. 18435.)

674. November 6, 1944. Resolution No. 270, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing rules and regulations concerning quotas among peanut oil manufacturers of the 1,000 tons of peanut flour authorized for cattle feed by Resolution No. 268 of October 30, 1944 (see Cuba 671, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 9, 1944, p. 18436.)

675. November 6, 1944. Resolution No. 271, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, establishing control over the distribution, use, and consumption of fertilizers and raw materials therefor, requiring declarations of stocks, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 9, 1944, p. 18437.)

676. November 6, 1944. Resolution No. 272, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, clarifying Presidential Decree No. 3789 of October 24, 1944 (see 666a above), by stating that the price fixed therein for bread is applicable throughout the Republic and specifying in detail the required weights of bread offered for sale in Oriente Province. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1944, p. 18469.)

677. November 7, 1944. Resolution No. 273, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing rules and regulations concerning the withdrawal from customs of imported wheat flour. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 13, 1944, p. 18601.)

678. November 11, 1944. Resolution No. 275, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for rice. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 17, 1944, p. 18854; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, November 23, 1944, p. 19204.)

679. November 14, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4094, waiving import duties and consular fees on equipment imported by the Cuban Blood Bank for the preparation of plasma to be sent to United Nations battlefronts or used by the Cuban civilian population. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 21, 1944, p. 19044.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

147. September 29, 1944. Regulation No. 2189, on the longer working day authorized by Law No. 152 of January 13, 1943 (see Dominican Republic 65, BULLETIN, June 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 4, 1944.)

148. October 9, 1944. Law No. 719, prescribing measures regulating the extension, until a year after the cessation of hostilities in Europe, of the effectiveness of trade marks which have expired since September 3, 1939, if they are held by representatives of firms in enemy-occupied nations. (*La Nación*, Ciudad Trujillo, October 12, 1944.)

ECUADOR

74e1. July 1, 1944. Presidential Decree 257 bis, amending the statutes of the Ecuadorean Development Corporation in order to improve administrative procedures and cut down expenses. (See Ecuador 196, BULLETIN, February 1943.) (*Registro Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

88. September 1, 1944. Legislative Decree prescribing measures to regulate the leasing of land for rice cultivation. (*Registro Oficial*, September 13, 1944.)

89. September 2, 1944. Legislative Decree freezing rents in urban areas at the May 1, 1944 level, prohibiting the termination by landlords of leases, and making other provisions pertaining thereto. (*Registro Oficial*, September 9, 1944.)

GUATEMALA

120a. September 18, 1944. Presidential Order transferring control over the importation and distribution of tires and gasoline from the Section of Economic-Financial Coordination of the Department of Foreign Affairs to the administration of the army. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 13, 1944.)

122. October 17, 1944. Presidential Order putting sales of newsprint under control of the Section of Economic-Financial Coordination for the duration of the emergency; restricting its use to governmental and public service publications and literary and scientific works already begun; prohibiting sales of more than a quarter ream; and applying to newsprint certain of the rules prescribed by Presidential Decree No. 2693 of February 9, 1942 (see Guatemala 12, BULLETIN, May 1942) for sales of automobiles, trucks, tires, and tubes. (*Diario de Centro América*, October 19, 1944.)

HAITI

99. September 15, 1944. Decree-law abolishing port duties and permitting vessels engaged in foreign trade to load and unload at closed ports or other points along the Republic's coast under conditions to be established; adopted to facilitate foreign trade during the war. (*Haiti-Journal*, Port-au-Prince, September 16, 1944.)

MEXICO

145. (Correction) March 17, 1943.

271. November 4, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, November, 24, 1944.)

272. November 8, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, allowing the claim presented by a specified paper manufacturing firm and repealing the order of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 232a, BULLETIN, June 1944) insofar as it refers to that firm. (*Diario Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

273. November 8, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

274. November 8, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, allowing the claim of a specified person and repealing the order of March 17, 1943 (see Mexico 145, BULLETIN, June 1943 and above) insofar as it refers to that individual. (*Diario Oficial*, November 28, 1944.)

275. November 8, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, clarifying the order of October 27, 1943 (see Mexico 208a, BULLETIN, May 1944) pertaining to persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, November 28, 1944.)

276. November 8, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, allowing the claim of a specified person and repealing the orders of June 13, 1942 and September 26, 1942 (see Mexico 46 and 88, BULLETIN, September and December 1942) insofar as they refer to that individual. (*Diario Oficial*, November 28, 1944.)

277. November 17, 1944. Decree placing 1944-45 rice production under control of the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit; fixing producer prices for the crop, which will be acquired by the National Distributing and Regulating Company; and prescribing other measures to regulate distribution and wholesale and retail prices. (*Diario Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

278. November 22, 1944. Resolution, Chief of the Department of the Federal District and the Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit, fixing prices in the Federal District for specified articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, November 24, 1944.)

PANAMA

115. October 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 278, amending Decree No. 223 of November 18, 1943 (see Panama 98, BULLETIN, April 1944) to increase the weekly slaughter of beef cattle in a specified district. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 31, 1944.)

116. October 25, 1944. Decree No. 54, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, fixing

wholesale and retail prices for soap powder in the cities of Panama and Colón. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 1, 1944.)

117. October 26, 1944. Decree No. 55, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, fixing maximum prices for specified medical products in David and Chiriquí. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 1, 1944.)

PARAGUAY

53i. March 6, 1944. (*Revista Municipal*, Asunción, February 1944.)

54. Decree-Law No. 3381. (*Revista del Centro de Importadores*, Asunción, July 1944.)

57a. August 24, 1944. Presidential decree regulating the naturalization of foreigners in accordance with certain provisions of Decree-Law No. 11,061 of February 16, 1942, which fixed the scope of the severance of relations with the Axis (see Paraguay 4, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*El País*, Asunción, August 25, 1944.)

59. (Correction) September 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 5253. (Mentioned in *El País*, Asunción, October 6, 1944.)

60. October 4, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, suspending the exportation of yuca flour and starch. (*El País*, Asunción, October 5, 1944.)

61. October 5, 1944. Presidential decree giving the National Food Administration exclusive authority to acquire all yerba maté and to regulate its processing and distribution for domestic consumption. (*El País*, Asunción, October 6, 1944.)

PERU

128a. June 22, 1944. Supreme Decree regulating the disposition of bakeries acquired by the government from Japanese subjects by providing for their adjudication by lot to qualified native-born Peruvians. (*El Peruano*, August 29, 1944.)

134. August 5, 1944. Supreme Decree fixing a new basis for calculating the price of domestic wheat acquired by flour mills in Lima and Callao. (*El Peruano*, September 9, 1944.)

135. August 9, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, fixing procedures for the adjudication by lot of bakeries acquired from Japanese subjects provided for in the Supreme Decree of June 22, 1944 (see 128a above). (*El Peruano*, August 29, 1944.)

136. August 10, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of

Agriculture, authorizing the exportation during the present year of up to 500 quintals of Peruvian tea, and specifying the form in which it is to be exported. (*El Peruano*, September 8, 1944.)

137. August 26, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, providing that requests for permission to buy, sell, or transfer recently imported trucks be made directly to the Rubber Consumption Supervisory Committee. (*El Peruano*, August 29, 1944.)

138. August 26, 1944. Supreme Resolution creating a commission to study means of installing a network of stations and storage places throughout the country for the distribution of petroleum, gasoline, kerosene and derivatives. (*El Peruano*, September 26, 1944.)

139. October 5, 1944. Supreme Resolution No. 74, outlining the functions of Price Regulation Offices with respect to essential foodstuffs. (*El Peruano*, October 17, 1944.)

140. October 7, 1944. Supreme Resolution providing for the acquisition by the government of the 1944-45 crop of specified varieties of beans. (*El Peruano*, October 12, 1944.)

141. October 24, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, authorizing the Inspector General of Pharmacy to publish once a month in the local papers the selling prices for penicillin. (*El Peruano*, October 25, 1944.)

URUGUAY

178i. November 30, 1943. Presidential decree fixing minimum prices for specified farm products. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, October 14, 1944.)

179a. December 22, 1943. Law No. 10,465, prescribing, for the protection of the consuming public, more severe penalties for infractions of the price regulations for articles of prime necessity fixed by Law No. 10,075 of October 23, 1941. (*Diario Oficial*, December 31, 1943.)

233. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 967/943, amending the decree of November 30, 1943 (see 178i above) by fixing a new minimum price for eggs. (*Diario Oficial*, October 14, 1944.)

234. September 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 730/944, amending the decree of September 19, 1944 (see Uruguay 232, BULLETIN, January 1945), by raising the authorized export quota of fresh eggs for the United Kingdom from 50,000

to 80,000 cases. (*Diario Oficial*, October 14, 1944.)

235. September 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2578/944, approving the price fixed by the ANCAP for asphalt manufactured by that organization. (*Diario Oficial*, October 6, 1944.)

236. October 13, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 232/944, amending the exchange treatment fixed by the decree of June 25, 1943, for the exportation of national products, in order to adjust it to present higher prices in the international market. (*Diario Oficial*, October 19, 1944.)

VENEZUELA

172. August 29, 1944. Resolution No. 2, National Supply Commission, fixing the ceiling retail price for bananas in specified places. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1944.)

173. September 1, 1944. Resolution No. 4, National Supply Commission, fixing maximum quotas of beef cattle for consumption in specified places; forbidding the retail sale of beef on Sundays; and making other pertinent regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1944.)

174. September 5, 1944. Resolution No. 5, National Supply Commission, fixing distribution quotas for truck and bus tires and inner tubes imported from Brazil. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 5, 1944.)

175. September 16, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, approving regulations governing the National Supply Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 18, 1944.)

176. September 25, 1944. Resolutions, Ministries of Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, ordering the liquidation of certain firms and commercial establishments owned by nationals of countries with which Venezuela has severed relations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 25, 1944.)

177. September 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 202, creating twenty local Offices of the National Supply Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 30, 1944.)

178. September 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 203, appropriating funds for local Offices of the National Supply Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 30, 1944.)

179. October 3, 1944. Resolution No. 6, National Supply Commission, regulating the distribution among manufacturers of crude or partly

processed natural, synthetic, or mixed rubber. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

180. October 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 206, discontinuing certain restrictions on Italian nationals established by Presidential Decree No. 241 of November 9, 1943 (see Venezuela 126, BULLETIN, April, 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 7, 1944.)

181. October 6, 1944. Resolution No. P-5, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling prices for rice and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 6, 1944.)

182. October 13, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, prolonging the import duty exemption for newsprint until January 31, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 14, 1944.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

(Correction) Item No. 55a, BULLETIN, November 1944, should have been numbered 55b.

144a. May 13, 1944. Extension to May 14, 1945, of the cooperative food production agreement between the Governments of the United States and Venezuela (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 94c, BULLETIN, September 1943). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 26, 1944.)

151. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 26, 1944.)

154a. August —, 1944. Agreement whereby the United States will purchase all pyrethrum flowers grown in Brazil, in excess of local needs, for the manufacture of insecticides. (*Brazilian Bulletin*, Brazilian Government Trade Bureau, New York, August 9, 1944.)

161a. August 25, 1944. Extension, effective July 1, 1944, of the metals purchase agreement between the Governments of Peru and the United States (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 104a, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*El Peruano*, Lima, August 30, 1944.)

161b. August 25, 1944. Extension to March 31, 1946, of the 33-1/3 percent bonus on the price of Peruvian rubber purchased by the United States through the Rubber Development Corporation. (*El Peruano*, Lima, August 30, 1944.)

165a. September 16, 1944. Meeting of the Second Session of the Council of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration in Montreal, Canada, to receive and consider the Direc-

tor General's report and to review the status and progress of the organization since its establishment in November 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

166a. September 27, 1944. Agreement effected by an exchange of notes between the Governments of the United States and Venezuela amending the rubber agreement between the two countries signed October 13, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 56, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

166b. September 27, 1944. Extension to September 27, 1945, of the agreement of June 11, 1940, between the Governments of the United States and Venezuela regarding rubber exploitation, trade, and prices; effected by an exchange of notes between the two Governments. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Caracas, September 28, 1944.)

169. October 28, 1944. Agreement between the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union, on the one hand, and the Government of Bulgaria, on the

other hand, concerning an armistice. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

170. November 1, 1944. Meeting at Chicago, Illinois, of an International Civil Aviation Conference, attended by delegates of 51 United, Associated, and European and Asiatic neutral nations, invited by the United States, to discuss world air commerce, provisional air routes and landing and transit rights, the establishment of an Interim Aviation Council to act during the transitional period required for the establishment of permanent international civil aviation services, and to study aviation navigation, techniques, standards, transport services, rate controls, competitive practices, subsidies, safety standards, and communication facilities. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 5, 1944.)

171. November 7, 1944. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Peru extending for a year effective from July 1, 1944, the agreement for the purchase by the United States of Peruvian minerals (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 104a, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*New York Times*, November 8, 1944.)



Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

AT the regular session convened on December 6, 1944, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union paid homage to Cordell Hull for the eminent services which as Secretary of State of the United States and as Chairman of the Board he gave to the nations of America and to the cause of Pan Americanism during the term of almost twelve years in which he held those offices. Then the Board unanimously elected as his successor in the chair Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., who took Mr. Hull's place as Secretary of State. (See page 76.)

Participation in Pan American Conferences

The Board approved a report of the special committee appointed to study the matter of the participation in Pan American conferences of international organizations which are not members of the Pan American Union. Although it recognizes "that in certain exceptional circumstances and because of geographic considerations or the

nature of the subject to be discussed, it may be desirable to provide for the participation in inter-American conferences of international organizations not a part of the inter-American system, or of governments not members of the Pan American Union," the report recommends that in such cases the Governing Board be previously consulted.

Program of the Inter-American Agricultural Conference

The Board also received from its committee on agriculture a tentative program for the Third Inter-American Agricultural Conference, which is to be held in Caracas, Venezuela, in July 1945. This outline was transmitted to the respective governments for their study and approval, with the request that whatever observations they may wish to make be sent to the Pan American Union before January 31, 1945, so that the Governing Board may be able to approve the final program of the Conference in its regular session in February 1945.

Program Material for Pan American Day

THE THEME selected for the fifteenth observance of Pan American Day is:

*The Peoples of America—Independent—
Interdependent—Neighbors in a
World of Neighbors.*

To assist groups planning to observe Pan American Day, the Pan American Union offers the material listed below. Because of the limited supply, material will be sent *only to teachers or group leaders, and only one copy* of each item will be sent to the same address. Please order by number and title:

1. PAN AMERICAN DAY. Its origin and significance. Suggestions for its observance.

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5. ANTHOLOGY OF LATIN AMERICAN LITERATURE. Selections of prose and poetry, translated from the works of Latin American authors and published in the United States during the last five years.

6. THE BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION. The February 1945 issue of the Bulletin is dedicated to Pan American Day.

7. MATERIAL IN SPANISH. Pamphlets 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9 of this list have been published in Spanish, primarily for distribution in Spanish America. Copies are available to Spanish classes and groups in the United States.

8. MATERIAL IN PORTUGUESE. Pamphlets 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9 of this list have been published in Portuguese, primarily for distribution in Brazil. Copies are available to Portuguese classes and groups in the United States.

9. MR. WHIMPLE MEETS THE HEROES. A play suitable for Junior and Senior High School groups, based on the names of Latin American heroes selected for Liberty Ships. Appended to

the play are brief biographical sketches and a series of questions based on the lives of the heroes.

10. LIFE OF BENITO JUÁREZ. A play, by Germaine Baer, Jackson High School, Jackson, Mich. Suitable for High School groups.

11. OUR PAN AMERICAN HEROES. A play for boys suitable for elementary and junior high schools, based on a visit to the Pan American Union in Washington. Adapted from a play by Edna Randolph Worrell, of Philadelphia.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

In addition to the publications listed above, which are intended for free distribution, the following are also available at the prices indicated, to cover the cost of publication. Remittance should be made to the Pan American Union by check or money order:

PAN AMERICA IN POSTER STAMPS. A series of twenty-four poster stamps in color of the American Republics, with an album in which they may be mounted and preserved. This contains a map and interesting data on the Americas. Single sets of 24 stamps and album, 15 cents; twenty or more sets ordered at the same time and sent to the same address, 10 cents.

FLAGS AND COATS-OF-ARMS OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS. Reproductions in color of the flags and coats-of-arms of the 21 republics, with a booklet containing a brief description and historical sketch of each, 10 cents. Sold separately: Booklet, 5 cents; sheet of flags, 5 cents.

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A list of general publications issued by the Pan American Union, giving titles and prices, will be sent upon request.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 54 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs

are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 120,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.

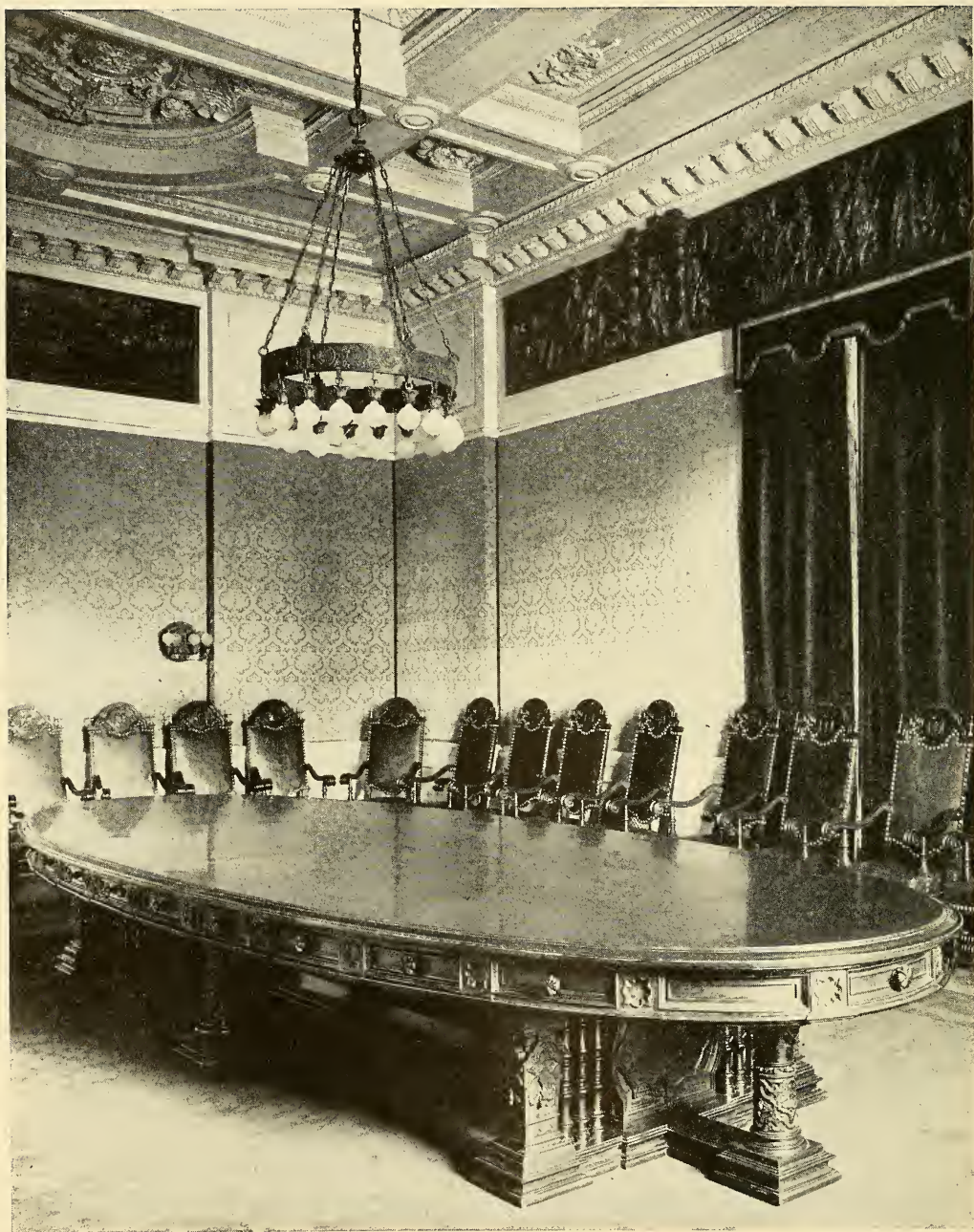


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*(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union
can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)*

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO AND STAIRWAY, PAN AMERICAN
UNION



THE GOVERNING BOARD ROOM, PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union holds its monthly meeting in a handsome room. The walls are hung with old-gold damask; below the cornice is a bronze frieze depicting scenes in the history of the Americas. The table and chairs are of Dominican mahogany.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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MARCH 1945

Edward R. Stettinius, Jr. *Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union*

EDWARD R. STETTINIUS, JR., who since October 4, 1943, had been Under Secretary of State, was named Secretary by President Roosevelt immediately following the resignation on November 21, 1944 of the Honorable Cordell Hull. The United States Senate confirmed the appointment on November 30, 1944.

The first act of the new Secretary of State on assuming his post December 1, 1944, was to pay a warm tribute of respect to his eminent predecessor. "I shall do my utmost," he said, "to carry out the high principles for which Mr. Hull has always stood in the conduct of our foreign policy. To build from the havoc of this war a peace that will endure is a task far beyond the strength and wisdom of any one man or group of men. It will require the active participation and support of all the American people—and of all the other peace-loving peoples of the world. In this task we must not fail. To this task I dedicate

myself in the sure knowledge that together we will not fail."

At its regular session of December 6, 1944, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union honored the new Secretary of State by naming him Chairman to succeed Mr. Hull. The Ambassador of Brazil, who as Vice Chairman was presiding over the meeting, proposed Mr. Stettinius' election in the following words:

The chairmanship of this Board being vacant, I propose that the present Secretary of State, the Honorable Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., be elected by acclamation to this important position.

It would be superfluous to outline to you all his activities since he has concentrated his attention on the affairs of the Department of State. Without loss of time, with an amazing rapidity, he mastered the many problems that he had to face and drew up the policies to be followed.

Devotedly and fearlessly he is endeavoring to give shape to an ideal that is the hope of the whole world—the maintenance of peace. And, therefore, in his dynamic and realistic way, he sought in the negotiations at Dumbarton Oaks to

harmonize interests, strike a balance between rights and duties, and understand just aspirations, so that the organization to be established would in fact be a recognition of the firm, unvarying, and eternal principles of Justice and Humanity.

The Republics of America have always tried to maintain an international balance embodied in Pan Americanism, a doctrine that envisages the juridical, economic, and political union of the New World.

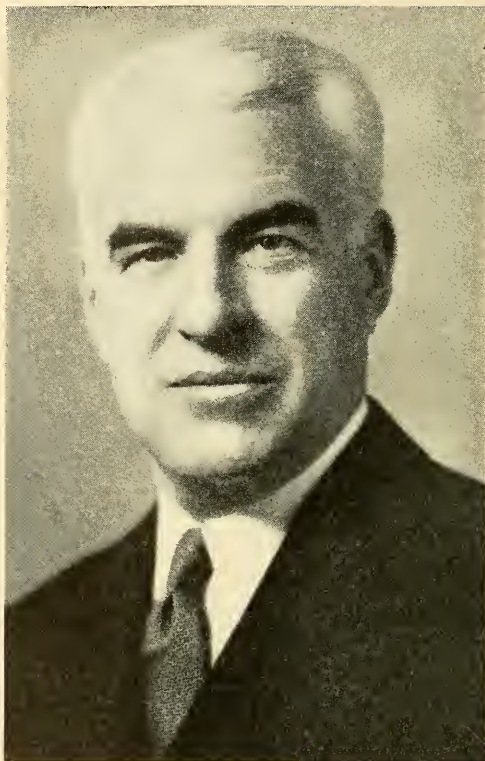
The Pan American Union, which is based on this policy of solidarity so necessary to the greatness of America, will surely occupy an outstanding position in the new peace organization. Its sphere of action, nevertheless, will previously have to be broadened, so as to adjust it to the political exigencies of the hour. And, in this process of readaptation, it will count on a past full of lessons, and on a vigor that will certainly be given it under the leadership of its illustrious Chairman.

The proposal of the Ambassador of Brazil was approved by acclamation and the Secretary of State of the United States thereupon took the chair. On accepting the office conferred on him by the representatives of the American Republics, Mr. Stettinius said:

The Ambassador of Brazil has spoken most generously in proposing my name to succeed Mr. Hull as Chairman of the Governing Board. It is a position which I accept with a full sense of the honor it bestows upon my Government, and of the responsibility it imposes upon me. I shall endeavor to carry on in the same spirit of constructive idealism which marked the work of my predecessor.

I should feel less happy about assuming this responsibility did I not enjoy a deep conviction that the deliberations of the members of this Board, and the collaborative work and thought of statesmen throughout the American Republics, have built a firm foundation of basic principles on which we may work toward an even more effective achievement of our common aims.

The American Republics have been going through world-shaking years of war that have tried and tested those principles, and demonstrated their validity. We approach now the goal of victory and peace, and find ourselves faced with new problems that concern the most vital mutual interests of our countries and the welfare of our peoples. Many of these problems present diffi-



EDWARD R. STETTINIUS, JR.

culties that will tax our resources of intelligence and good will. We should approach them with minds ready to improve the machinery of our cooperative effort.

Let us at the same time rededicate ourselves to the basic principles which have proved so great a source of strength through years of fruitful experience—principles of mutual respect, of regard for law, and of mutual cooperation as the basis of a unity that is strong enough to withstand whatever trials the future may bring. Above all let us bear ever in mind the goals toward which our efforts must always be directed: the maintenance of peace and the development of a materially and spiritually richer human life.

Gentlemen, it is in this spirit that I approach the execution of the responsibilities which you have placed upon me. It is a comfort to know that we shall be working closely together in these matters that are of equal concern to all our respective countries, and that I shall be able to

profit by your wisdom and experience. I am confident that together we shall be able to make this association work for the good of all the peoples of this hemisphere.

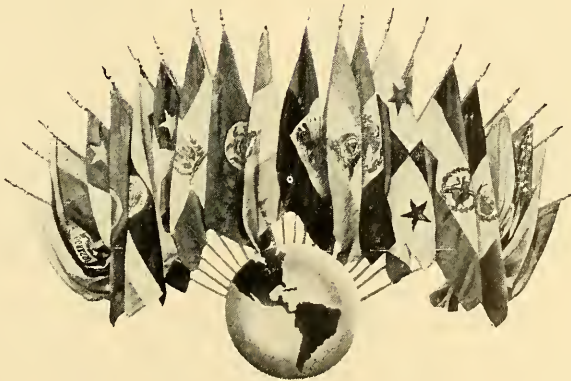
Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., was born in Chicago on October 22, 1900. After completing his studies at the University of Virginia in 1924, he began a spectacular business career with the Hyatt Roller Bearing Works, Harrison, New Jersey, where he soon became employment manager. In 1926 he entered the General Motors Corporation to study employment practices and there he was appointed successively assistant to the vice president, assistant to the president, and finally vice president of the Corporation. In 1934 he joined the United States Steel Corporation, where his rise was equally meteoric. Entering the world's largest steel company as vice chairman of the Finance Committee, within two years he advanced to the office of chairman of the Committee, and in 1938, at the age of thirty-eight, he was named chairman of the Board of Directors.

When the clouds of war began to darken the horizon in 1939, President Roosevelt called Mr. Stettinius to Washington as a member of the National Defense Committee. He also served for a time as chairman

of the War Resources Board. In 1940 he resigned from the United States Steel Corporation in order to devote all his time, talent, and energy to governmental affairs. In 1941 he became special assistant to the President in charge of Lend-Lease operations. Following his appointment in October 1943 as Under Secretary, Mr. Stettinius frequently served as Acting Secretary, during times when Mr. Hull was away from Washington as, for example, when he attended the memorable Moscow Conference or, more lately, when his health compelled him to absent himself from his duties.

Mr. Stettinius had been in the State Department only a few months when he was sent to Great Britain to discuss a wide range of problems, including Lend-Lease and the future treatment of Germany. He headed the United States delegation to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, where with representatives of Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China he helped to work out the tentative plan for a world peace and security organization.

Mr. Stettinius, furthermore, is the youngest Secretary of State the United States has had since Edmund Randolph of Virginia, at the age of forty-one, was appointed to that post in Washington's Cabinet in 1794.



The Service of the Retail Trade to Inter-American Commercial Relations

L. S. ROWE

Director General of the Pan American Union

BEGINNING with the First Pan American Conference held in 1890, we have gradually developed on this continent an inter-American system based on the principles of justice, mutual respect, and cooperation.

In the fifty-five years that have elapsed since the first Conference the inter-American system has pioneered in formulating and putting into practice many principles of international relations now being considered for adoption by all nations of the world. At the Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, this great movement was further advanced by solemn

agreements under which the American nations made themselves responsible for the maintenance of the peace of this continent, and at the same time committed themselves to the principle that any menace to the safety of any American nation is to be regarded as a menace to all and immediately gives rise to concerted action.

Furthermore, the nations of the Americas have become increasingly conscious of the fact that the prosperity of each is dependent upon the prosperity of all, and that enlightened self-interest dictates not only the desirability but also the necessity of inter-American economic and financial cooperation in order to assure such prosperity. This sentiment found expression in the establishment

Abstract of an address delivered at a Pan American Trade luncheon, New York, January 10, 1945.

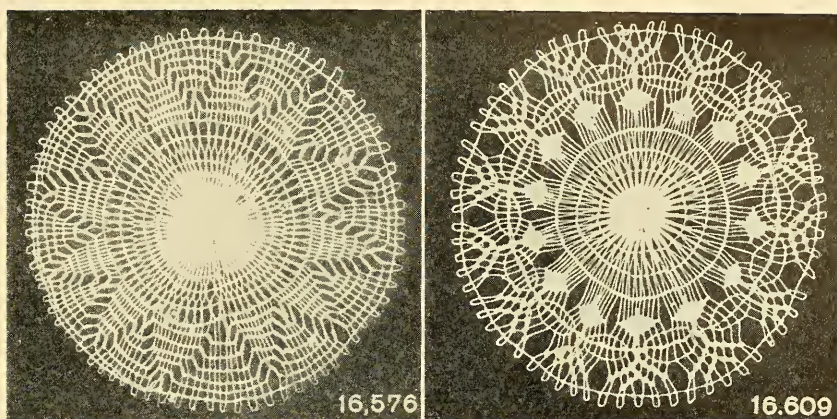


Courtesy of Macy's



BRAZILIAN WOODENWARE, MEXICAN HANDIWORK, ARGENTINE EMBROIDERY,
PERUVIAN SILVER

Some concerns have pioneered in importing Latin American articles, which have proved popular with their customers.



NANDUTI LACE FROM PARAGUAY

Paraguayan women make this delicate lace with thread and needle on a foundation of muslin that is afterwards cut away.

of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee in 1939, and even more concretely in the Inter-American Development Commission, organized in June 1940 and aided in its task by the national commissions functioning in the twenty-one republics. Such cooperation was never more important than at the present time and will be even more important during the postwar period.

Most of the Latin American countries are facing the prospect of difficult economic and financial adjustments at the close of the war by reason of the reduction in our purchases of their most important products, such as the tin of Bolivia and the nitrate and copper of Chile. In order to avoid widespread unemployment with its accompanying social and political unrest, it will be necessary to fill the gap by increasing our purchases of a wider variety of products. It is at this point that the retailers of the United States are in a position to render an important service to our commercial relations with the countries of Latin America and at the same time serve their own interests.

I am fully aware of the difficulties that

present themselves. In the course of extended visits to the Latin American countries, I have been deeply impressed by the many products that would certainly appeal to the American public. From a long list let me take but two, selected from widely separated sections of the continent.

More than twenty years ago, during my first visit to Paraguay, I noticed in the corridor of the hotel at which I was staying, a group of Indian women, each with a basket filled with the most beautiful lace and embroideries I have ever seen. The prices were ridiculously low, owing to the devaluation of the Paraguayan peso, and it was evident that these women were eking out a bare subsistence from handiwork of the finest and most skillful character. It occurred to me that if a market for these articles could be found in the United States, the remuneration of those people could be considerably increased and their standard of living raised. After purchasing a number of pieces, I took them on my return to the United States to my good friend Jesse Straus and asked whether it would not be possible to develop a market in this country. Without hesitation he said,



Courtesy of Peruvian Commercial Mission

PERU HAS MANY ANCIENT SKILLS

Textiles and silver work such as these examples are eagerly sought by Americans.

"Why certainly, we could use many of these in large quantities, anywhere from twenty to fifty dozen." I was compelled to reply that this was out of the question, as it would be impossible to secure more than five or six duplicates of each of the samples shown. In other words, the industry was not organized to fit the American market.

Selecting another example, this time from the northern section of the continent, I recall with great pleasure visiting the public market at Guatemala City. There I saw displayed extremely handsome handwoven textiles, but there again it was impossible to purchase more than a small quantity of each kind.

Fortunately, conditions are changing. An obvious solution of this problem would be the establishment of a central sales and distributing center in each American country, through which the work of craftsmen and small manufacturers could be adapted to the needs of foreign markets and made available in quantities to meet the need of our retail trade. It is here that the retailers of America are in a position to render a great service to the countries of Latin America and

at the same time serve their own interests. I feel certain that they will be assured of the enthusiastic support of the respective governments if they will cooperate in the establishment of such central sales and distributive centers.

In this connection, I should like to pay tribute to the important service rendered by the Inter-American Development Commission under the able direction of Nelson Rockefeller and Rafael Oreamuno. Not only is the Commission performing a great service in furthering the industrialization of Latin America and placing at the disposal of individual nations the technical skill of the United States, but it has not overlooked the small craftsman and home industry. Representatives of the Commission have been visiting Latin America for the express purpose of fostering the development of local crafts and small industries especially for the United States market.

Hitherto the chief difficulty has been, as I have pointed out, to obtain merchandise in sufficient quantities to interest large retail establishments. Now, however, from certain

countries, notably Mexico and to a less degree many of the Central American and Caribbean nations, it is possible to import glassware, handmade silver, leather goods, textiles, pottery, cabinet work, woodcarvings, and other goods adapted to our market. Fine woolens and silks from Uruguay and Brazil, respectively, have recently been featured in a few of our department stores. Individual concerns that have pioneered in finding Latin American products to offer their customers should have recognition for their contribution in this field, but their work is not enough. Many of the goods they have introduced and others now finding their way into this country may be available in limited quantities only for a short time, but concerted and, more especially, sustained action by retailers as a whole will be an important factor in improving the domestic economy of our Latin American neighbors.

One factor of no mean importance in this situation is the unreasonably high tariff on all these articles. Most of them do not compete with goods made in the United States and yet the duties range from sixty to ninety percent. We have the right to expect that our government will cooperate to the extent of reducing the tariff on these non-competitive articles.

One of the great problems, probably the outstanding one, confronting most of the Latin American governments, is to raise the standard of living of the working classes. Anything we can contribute to this great purpose is in our interest as well as in that of the respective countries. You cannot expect Latin America to become a great market for our manufactured articles until the buying power—in other words, the standard of living of the masses of the people—has been brought to a much higher level than it has

INDIGENOUS MOTIVES IN MODERN MATERIALS

The purchase by the United States of a wide variety of Latin American products would help to bridge over the postwar period of economic adjustments.



Photograph by Dumas Satigny

reached today. It is by your encouragement to the craftsman and the small-scale manufacturer that our purchases can directly affect an increasing portion of the people.

In offering this cooperation with the Latin American countries you will be making a real contribution to Pan American cooperation as well as subserving our own national interest. Whatever form the world organization for peace may take, it is a matter of vital interest that the system of inter-American cooperation developed on this continent be preserved. It will be to the everlasting credit

of the American nations that they have developed a new concept of the real meaning of peace. Instead of giving it the traditional meaning—mere absence of conflict—they have given it a constructive content involving mutual helpfulness and the adoption of measures tending to promote continental prosperity. The Americas are giving an example to the world, which in these tragic days is of inestimable value. They are thus fulfilling the real mission that by reason of their privileged position they are called upon to perform.

Inter-American Centers in the United States

RAYMOND T. RICH

Director, Council for Inter-American Cooperation (Recently Director of Inter-American Centers, Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs)

ACROSS the country there are at the present time sixteen regional Inter-American Centers and numerous sub-centers. They are clearing-houses, service bureaus, and sources of information for individuals and organizations who can contribute to inter-American understanding and cooperation. They are private, non-profit bodies, dependent upon private contributions for their support. Their aim is to encourage, strengthen, and assist the innumerable local and regional groups whose programs include the promotion of inter-American cooperation. They undertake programs of their own only when that is clearly the most effective way of procuring the cooperation of the largest number of groups and individuals.

The Centers all have office headquarters, paid executive directors and modest secretarial and clerical assistance. Their organization varies according to regional condi-

tions, but they usually have, in addition to a board of directors or governors, an executive committee, a broadly representative advisory committee and, frequently, special program committees for their wide range of activities.

In their work the Centers are almost invariably guided by strong leaders. Their boards and committees include outstanding figures in business, finance, the professions, local government, labor, agriculture, education, the arts, and social and civic enterprises. In each Center these leaders represent most diverse political, economic, and social viewpoints.

Origin of the Centers

It is to the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, under the direction of Mr. Nelson A. Rockefeller, that the credit goes for the present network of Inter-American Centers. Even prior to Pearl Har-

bor it was clear that problems of supply and of military and political action would necessitate the closest cooperation between this country and the other American republics. But to be effective this would require popular understanding and support.

Furthermore, it was important to demonstrate to those neighboring countries that this nation intended to make the Good Neighbor policy a permanent policy. And the most practical demonstration would lie in what the people of the United States did to develop an understanding of the other Americas and to prepare for long-range cooperation in war and also in peace.

Yet again, in order to cooperate effectively, the people of this country required a fuller knowledge of the history, language, psychology, geography, raw materials, commercial practices, transportation, and general needs and resources of the other republics in this hemisphere.

For all these reasons, therefore, it was important to reinforce the numerous groups and institutions which were conducting various types of inter-American programs, and to encourage new activities by other bodies. In the main, these groups were operating independently of one another's existence. It was necessary to coordinate them and to aid them so far as possible in order that they might, collectively, have a maximum total effect.

The Centers were the means devised to meet these needs.

Early method of operations

The Inter-American Centers' program was adopted by the Office of the Coordinator on October 30, 1941, and approved by the State Department on November 3, 1941. From that time until the end of 1942, it was the usual practice to encourage selected existing organizations to expand their inter-American activities and to grant financial assistance to them for this purpose.

In line with this policy, grants totaling \$87,300 were given to the following organizations: Cleveland Council on Inter-American Affairs, Omaha Public Forum, Pacific House (San Francisco), the Pan American Council and the Good Neighbor Forum (Chicago), Pan American Council of Massachusetts (Boston), Rocky Mountain Council on Inter-American Affairs, Southern Council on International Relations (Chapel Hill), Western Policy Committee (Des Moines), and the World Affairs Council of Rhode Island.

Five of the organizations had programs dealing with all phases of international affairs, but only the inter-American aspects were assisted.

Second phase of operations

By December 1942, however, the Coordinator's Office became convinced that a more thorough and systematic coverage of the United States by organizations devoted primarily and even exclusively to inter-American affairs was highly desirable. Hence a new policy was adopted. A representative of the Office went into regions where various separate and inadequate programs were being conducted and where coordination and reenforcement appeared needed. In the light of the best procurable advice, he sought to enlist the services of leaders who were unquestionably interested and who were also so generally representative that they would command the confidence of all the major groups and institutions whose participation was desirable. Steps were then taken to bring these individuals and organizations together for the purpose of formulating plans and organizing Inter-American Centers.

As a result of this procedure, six additional Centers were organized between April 1 and June 15, 1943. These bodies were: the Detroit Inter-American Center, the Inter-

American Center of St. Louis, the Midwest Inter-American Center (Kansas City, Missouri), the Philadelphia Regional Inter-American Center, the Pittsburgh Regional Inter-American Center, and the Southern California Council on Inter-American Affairs.

These Centers adopted budgets totaling \$67,400 and the Coordinator's Office granted assistance for the initial year, and the initial year only, amounting to \$40,000.

During the fiscal year 1944, none of the Centers organized under the new method of operations needed further aid. But to conserve the earlier investment, final grants were made to seven of the earlier Centers totaling \$34,500. In addition, \$1,500 was granted to a new Center in Memphis, Tennessee.

The same year also witnessed the organization of two Centers without any financial aid from the Coordinator: the Pan American Council of Buffalo and Western New York and the Inter-American Coordinating Council in Akron, Ohio.

Informing the American public

Business, civic, and educational leaders alike have agreed that a primary function of the Centers must be to increase popular understanding regarding Latin America in order that there may be a more interested and informed public opinion, ready to uphold wise national policies toward the countries that are our neighbors.

The achievements of the Centers in this field may to some extent be measured statistically. During a recent twelve-month period the Centers, although several were only recently organized:

Distributed approximately 700,000 copies of publications issued by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs;

Issued monthly publications of their own and distributed over 165,000 copies, primarily to leaders in their respective regions;

Supplied motion pictures for nearly 700 show-

ings per month, with an average total attendance of over 136,000 persons each month;

Produced a monthly average of more than forty radio broadcasts, including language lessons, musical programs, and a great variety of programs concerning the other republics of the western hemisphere and their relationships to the United States;

Sponsored, instigated or served each month an average total of over 320 meetings with an average monthly attendance in excess of 52,000 persons;

Displayed exhibits which it is estimated have been seen by over 1,000,000 people during the year;

Served or sponsored events which won a total of over 60,000 millines of newspaper space.

Thus far, the popular educational work of the Centers has been chiefly of a general character. In the future, however, many Centers are expected to devote additional attention to activities demonstrating the importance of inter-American trade to full employment in the United States; the value of imports; the importance of increasing the purchasing power and raising the standard of living in the other American nations; and the reasons why the development of industries in Latin America not only enhances the well-being of our neighbors but also gains long-term advantages for this country irrespective of temporary dislocations and necessary readjustments.

In another field, one of the most important functions of the Centers, but one not capable of numerical measurement, is the provision of hospitality and facilities for visitors from Central and South America brought to this country by the Coordinator and by the Department of State. These travelers are routed so that they visit various cities where Inter-American Centers are located. The Centers act as hosts and arrange appointments for the visitors with local citizens of similar interests in business, educational, or professional fields. Before the existence of the Centers it was difficult to provide oppor-

tunities for visitors to become intimately familiar with those aspects of American life of greatest interest to them.

The effect in Latin America

These operations by the Centers, although they should be greatly increased if they are to be adequate, have already created a profoundly favorable impression among our neighbors. American citizens residing in Latin America and serving on the Coordination Committees sponsored there by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs have requested detailed periodic reports of all such activities. They state that nothing carries greater weight than the work of the Centers in convincing our neighbors that the Good Neighbor policy is here to stay and that at last the people of the United States may come to know as much about Latin America as Latin Americans believe they know about us.

Conferences for economic leaders

With a view to providing a more specialized service for North Americans who can contribute to inter-American economic development, an intensive effort was made early in 1944 to obtain the judgment of nationally known leaders of industry, commerce and finance. They were asked what economic activities they would like to have conducted by the Centers—activities which would not duplicate or compete with the work of Government or private bodies.

First and foremost, these leaders stated their interest in activities which would be essentially at the policy-forming level. It was pointed out that statistical data, by their nature, cannot reflect the type and trend of long-term development plans. Furthermore, printed material alone cannot adequately reveal political and social conditions, nor provide intimate information regarding the probable degree and direction of those pro-

found changes which will take place as the post-war period unfolds. There is need, therefore, they felt, for meetings at which responsible policy-forming executives could confer with well-informed Latin Americans and recently returned North American business leaders.

The Centers have based their initial economic activities upon these recommendations. They organize numerous luncheon and dinner discussion meetings—sometimes off the record—with attendance ranging from small but highly influential groups of as few as ten to larger groups of over a hundred. In addition, some of the Centers conduct intensive institutes and practical clinics on the general subject or on special aspects of trade and commerce with Latin America.

Training courses

Assuming that wise basic policies have been determined, the next economic need is to have experienced salesmen, buyers, bankers, engineers, and other specialists, who know and understand Latin America. Unfortunately, there is a dearth of high-grade men of this type who can use Spanish or Portuguese and also are familiar with Latin American business methods.

The Centers are, therefore, coming to grips with this problem in a hard-headed and practical manner. They are sponsoring or planning training courses to include Spanish and Portuguese business language instruction; Latin American business customs; psychological, historical, and economic backgrounds of the various Republics; and other fundamentals necessary to equip business men to deal intelligently with their business problems in the other American republics whether as exporters or buyers or as colleagues in business and industrial establishments.

In these courses, as in virtually all other activities, the Centers have enlisted the co-

operation and collaboration of other interested organizations in the community or region. The result has been a collective service of wide and specific practical value.

Out of these activities have grown many far-reaching plans for the future, calculated to advance economic cooperation between the respective regions and Latin America. Although the Centers have a far broader objective than commercial and economic development alone, there is now a very fundamental segment of the Centers' activity which focuses upon increase in mutually profitable business and trade.

Plans for the future

The Inter-American Centers have built themselves wisely and have demonstrated their ability to seize large opportunities on a new frontier of action. Hence, all of the Centers have been able to continue their work without further governmental financial aid. Indeed, it is probable that for the year 1945, the budgets of the Centers will total about \$250,000—all to be donated by groups they serve and by individuals and interested business concerns who wish to promote the welfare of the peoples of the Americas.

But the Centers have leaned heavily on the assistance provided by the Office of the Coordinator in the form of counsel, guidance, the interchange of ideas and programs, and the supply of certain publications. And that aid must soon be discontinued.

It became clear, therefore, that there is needed a permanent, private organization—non-profit and non-governmental—which

will serve as a national body with which the Inter-American Centers and other groups can be affiliated, from which they can obtain counsel, and through which over-all programs can be undertaken.

To meet this need a small group of persons familiar with the situation have organized the Council for Inter-American Cooperation, Inc., incorporated under the laws of the State of New York for exclusively scientific and educational purposes. Its trustees will be nationally known citizens who represent a cross-section of the United States.

The program of the Council is expected to include measures to assure the permanence of existing Inter-American Centers, steps to launch Centers in a few additional areas, service to Latin American visitors, enlistment of the cooperation of inter-American scholars and educators, as well as of key groups in business, agriculture, labor, and civic fields, and in general the promotion of a mutual exchange of thought and ideas, two-way travel, and cooperative economic development.

Greater even than this objective, however, is the hope of the organizers of the Council for Inter-American Cooperation, that if the unity of the Americas can be continued, and if effective new means of international cooperation can be developed among the peoples of this hemisphere, there will result not only a contribution to the well-being of the Americas, but also the establishment of patterns and precedents which might be extended to other parts of the world to advance the welfare of mankind.

Three Central American Sculptors

LESLIE JUDD SWITZER

Art Consultant, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union

ALTHOUGH North Americans are familiar with the best of Central America's painters, the work of its sculptors is less well known. Yet in Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica three young sculptors have been producing work that can compare in quality to much that has been produced in the other Americas. Working by themselves, with little official encouragement or help, they have each arrived at a personal expression independent of the influence of art movements to north or south.

Rodolfo Galeotti Torres was born in Quetzaltenango, Guatemala, in 1912, and studied for three years in Carrara, Italy, both in the Academy of Fine Arts and privately. Upon his return to Guatemala in 1933 he worked in painting and sculpture, completing in 1935 the Monument to General Rufino Barrios, in direct stone carving. While he devoted the years 1936-37 almost entirely to painting, with the decoration of the Mayan Palace in the city of La Unión a year later Galeotti Torres turned finally to sculpture as his means of expression, and has produced several public monuments in direct carving; a series of heads of racial types; and in 1941 the architectural decoration of the new National Palace in Guatemala City.

Galeotti Torres presents an interesting combination of influences which have evolved from his Italian and Guatemalan parentage, as well as from his art studies in Carrara. He is deeply concerned with Mayan culture, and has used the Popul Vuh (an ancient account of Mayan legend and history) as a theme for much of his work without, how-

ever, falling into the temptation of idealizing the Indian, or of regarding him from the superficial point of view of the tourist, who sees only a quaint and colorful creature posed against the magnificent mountains and valleys of his native land. Galeotti Torres has turned to the Mayan carvings as the true interpretation of the soul of the Indian, feeling as he does that the present-day Guate-



Courtesy of G. Amador Lira

COMPOSITION IN PLASTER

This shows the excellent use of line in sculptural composition by Amador Lira (Nicaragua).



Courtesy of R. Galeotti Torres

"THE SOURCE"

Direct carving by Galeotti Torres (Guatemala).

malan Indian has through Spanish domination lost touch with his great past and now approaches more nearly the colonial culture in his thoughts and feelings.

The influence of the Italian school of carving is evident in Galeotti Torres' technique and use of materials, but his simplification and concern with the meaning of the inner forms of his subject are the very personal contribution of the artist himself. He has said that reality is a dictionary from which the artist takes the words he needs to build a language for himself. This is apparent in his work, where his preoccupation with man's relation to the earth and to his ancient gods expresses itself in forms, the distortion or simplification of which make clear and intensify the emotional response of the artist to his subject.

Galeotti Torres' sculpture, intuitive and sensual, is the result of a deep and intense love for his people, their culture and the earth from which they come, together with a craftsman's understanding of the technical requirements of his medium.

Nicaragua's outstanding artist is the sculptor Genaro Amador Lira. Born in 1910 at Managua, he won a scholarship in 1935 from the Government of Nicaragua to study art in Mexico, as a result of an exhibition of miniature carvings which the newspaper *La Noticia* had arranged for him. He studied at the Academia San Carlos in Mexico City, under Ignacio Asúnsolo, Carlos Dublán and Arnulfo Domínguez Bello, exhibiting his work each year with that of the outstanding students of the school. In 1940 he was



Courtesy of R. Galeotti Torres

"DANCE"

Figure in plaster by Galeotti Torres (Guatemala) which won first prize in the Yela Gunther competition in Guatemala City.



Courtesy of Archive of Hispanic Culture

"THE PANTHER"

Direct carving in granite by Amador Lira (Nicaragua), showing his integration of material and form.

represented in the Exposition of Independent Artists in Mexico City, and in 1941 returned to his own country, where his Government asked him to create a School of Fine Arts as a branch of the University, for the purpose of teaching painting, sculpture, music, and dance. For several years he has been the director of the school, where the quality and individuality of the work of the students is proof of his teaching abilities. His work is represented in private collections in Nicaragua and the United States, in the Nicaraguan Embassy in Mexico, and in the collection of International Business Machines.

Amador Lira's sculpture may be divided into two categories—both of which have been carried through since his earliest work—based on his approach to his medium. His direct carvings in stone are clear, hard-cut and firmly modeled, with flat strong planes which are polished to allow the beauty of

the stone to become part of the composition of the piece. His work in plaster, on the other hand, reveals his love of line and of subtle flowing forms that weave into abstract patterns from which only the suggestion of the subject matter emerges. Their rhythmic activity is in such direct contrast to the static heavy feeling of the stone carvings that if one did not know of the artist's intense respect for his material one would scarcely believe that the works were done by the same man. Amador Lira is deeply concerned with the unity of each piece of sculpture, and is fond of losing the forms of his subject in the material, letting line and mass tell the story. His refusal to give titles to his works further attests to his indifference toward his subject matter once it has provided the inspiration for sculptural composition. His portrait heads and nude studies reveal his sound knowledge of anatomy and of heavy fleshy



Photograph by Leslie Switzer

FIGURE OF CHRIST CARVED FROM TREE TRUNK

By Juan Manuel Sánchez (Costa Rica).

modeling, yet one feels that they are a self-imposed discipline from which he gladly escapes into pure abstract line and interweaving forms.

Amador Lira claims no direct influence in his work. He has studied and read a good deal, and is interested in Mayan and Incan art forms, but his work is international in character and shows a broad background of study. His respect and admiration for his Mexican master, Ignacio Asúnsolo, do not seem to have made his sculpture Mexican in character, and indeed his light graceful approach to his modeled work is more European in style.

Amador Lira's growth and development have lain within himself, the product of his intelligence and sensitivity and of his respect and love for his material.

Working alone and exhibiting very little, Juan Manuel Sánchez of Costa Rica is a sculptor's sculptor. Of Indian extraction, he has been much influenced by Incan and Mayan stone-carving. He is entirely self-taught, except for a brief period as apprentice in a studio of religious sculpture, yet his library of art books reveals his interest in archaic Greek; in the work of John Flanagan, the American sculptor; in Gothic carving; and in pre-Columbian American stone sculpture. His work runs a gamut from heavy immobile stone, its original mass modified only enough to reveal the artist's interest in its forms, through slender Gothic carvings in soft wood, usually of religious subjects, to



Photograph by Leslie Switzer

DIRECT STONE CARVING
By Juan Manuel Sánchez (Costa Rica).

the exquisitely delicate line drawings with which he has illustrated books of poetry and children's stories.

Sánchez works in the materials native to Costa Rica, in heavy field stones which lie in his studio until they suggest some form which the artist can bring out with a minimum of disturbance to their surface; in woods such as cedar and pine, where the forms of a tree, or of a severely squared-off cedar post, dominate the composition of the final carving. In his carvings of fence posts, in each of which a corner of the post is the axis from which the composition grows, he combines sculptural feeling with such respect for the angular shape of the post that it could easily return to its man-imposed function: tree, post and carving in one.

The artist's subjects are brought out with only a suggestion of carving, and often with mere line drawing on the surface, and he places them in his garden where they acquire once again their rich patina of moss and lichen and seem almost to return to their original state, but with their hidden spirit more clearly shown. The stones remain stones; the tree trunks retain their twisted growth; yet each has had inner personality slyly revealed by a hand that is so close to nature that it could not destroy the beauty of her forms, even if it would.

In Sánchez the mystic (pagan or catholic) is at work, hand in hand with the artist who loves sculpture that is solid, heavy and strong, its surface modeling subjected to the stern discipline of its undisturbed mass.

Learning Spanish with the Cubans

E. VIRGINIA MASSIMINE

Director of Pan American Activities, New York City Public Schools

ONE of the major problems we had to solve at the beginning of this war was how to become better friends and neighbors with our sister republics. With the new impetus for trade within the Western Hemisphere came the need for the knowledge of Spanish and Portuguese. It was only then that we found how woefully lacking we were, not only in our acquaintance with the language of the greater part of our Hemisphere, but also in our knowledge of the historical background, geographic factors, economics, and culture of our Latin neighbors.

We have always envied the Europeans their accessibility to other countries, which facilitates the study of foreign languages. It took a war to make us realize that in only 90 minutes from Florida we could be

in a country where the Spanish language could be learned by living it, while meantime we enjoyed a country of great charm and old-world background. We had also the pleasure of being with people of innate culture, intelligence, and affability, deft in social graces.

One of the solutions offered to make a mutual understanding possible between different countries is the exchange of students and teachers who study in foreign universities. I have come to the conclusion that this is among the best.

The University of Habana too has realized this, and has been very ready to offer its resources, faculties, and untiring efforts to further this worthy cause. For the realization of this project we have to thank Dr. Rodolfo

Méndez Peñate, Rector of the University, Dr. José M. Gutiérrez, Dean of the Faculty of Education and Director of the Summer School, and Dr. Abelardo Moreno, Secretary of the Faculty of Sciences and of the Summer School.

The Summer School¹ was opened in the summer of 1941, and last year saw a successful fourth year come to a close. There were 531 students registered, of whom 115 were students from the United States, 30 foreign residents of Cuba, and 386 Cubans.

A distinguished panel of professors, including 33 from the University of Habana and 29 guest professors, composed the faculty. Among these we found Dr. José Encinas, ex-Rector of the University of San Marcos in Lima, Peru, an authority on Indians of the Andes; Señora María Muñoz de Quevedo, Director of the Bach Conservatory, Habana, and an authority on Cuban folk music; four professors from universities in Spain; and two from the United States.

The courses offered showed great wisdom and foresight on the part of the directors. Besides the language courses, which covered the needs of those with no previous knowledge, there were courses in music, art, archeology, economics, flora and fauna of Cuba, Peruvian civilization, philosophy, literature, and even motion picture art and appreciation, mining, and refrigeration. Complete special courses in education, medicine, agriculture, and the technical preparation of teachers of English were offered to graduate students.

What better way of getting a grounding in Spanish and Spanish culture than to study in an atmosphere of such charm! When I decided to go, I must confess I did have doubts. Should I be able to follow the lec-

tures in Spanish? Would Habana be too hot in the summer season? Should I feel an outsider in a foreign country? But right from the start my fears were dispelled.

When we landed at the air field we encountered a cool, welcome breeze which we found to be the prevailing wind, and all summer it proved its worth. At the University, built high on a hill, the air was always stirring, and it wasn't long before we learned to walk in the shade, where it is cool. The classic architecture of the University buildings, set in beautiful tropical gardens, made a beautiful setting for our work there.

When we went to register, not only the registrars but also the directors themselves were there to help us. And that was the spirit that dominated our stay at the University. Our professors were not only our able teachers and guides in academic matters but our real friends. They went far out of their line of duty to accommodate us, to enlighten us about customs perhaps a little different from ours, to stimulate and guide our thoughts, and even to entertain us at their homes. We felt that at all times we could go to them with any problems.

The University arranged a social program that took care of off-campus hours. Every Monday morning, a University Bulletin in English or in Spanish was given to all students by the affable and courteous guides, who were always on the campus ready to help. These bulletins outlined all events for the week. There were cocktail parties, special motion-picture parties, exhibitions, sight-seeing tours around the city, fine lectures in Spanish, and excursions every week-end. One was to the Instituto Cívico y Militar at Ceiba del Agua, where we were received most kindly and generously and entertained with a typical Cuban dinner and motion pictures. Other excursions took us to historic Trinidad, to the beautiful Viñales valley, to Varadero beach, and to El Mariel, the Naval

¹The Summer School of the University of Habana will be held this year from July 9 to August 18. For full information address Dr. Abelardo Moreno, Secretario, Escuela de Verano, Universidad de la Habana, Habana, Cuba.

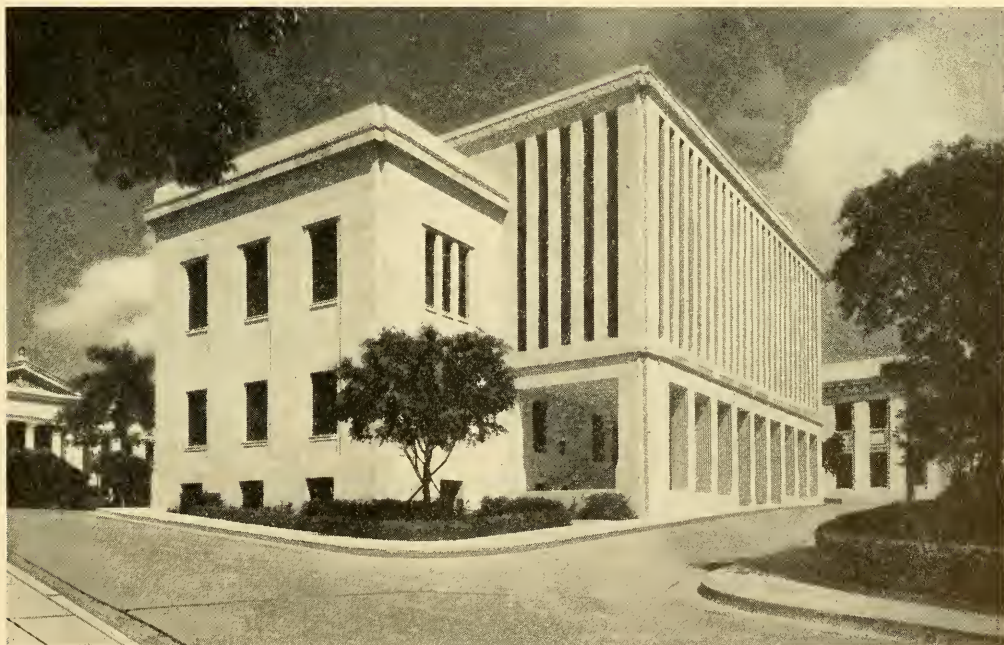
Academy. All these trips were thoroughly enjoyable. One not only became acquainted with Cuban hospitality and the outlying countryside but also enjoyed comradeship with Cuban students. On two unforgettable nights there were events in the beautiful Plaza Cárdenas on the campus: a concert of Cuban music and three plays offered by the University Players.

Many of the beach and country clubs graciously opened their doors to the students. Of course the Habana beaches are unique.

The thrills to be had browsing in the shops, exploring the old sections of Habana,

learning to know the people, or just sitting at an outdoor café while putting our Spanish to practical use are only part of the fun we had in Habana.

The contacts made by foreign students with Cubans, the knowledge and the appreciation of our neighbors and their culture that we gained, spread far afield when we students returned to widely scattered homes. The value of these contacts can hardly be estimated, but the ripples caused by them as by a stone thrown into the waters—the waters that separate us—will touch both shores, joining us in everlasting friendship.



Courtesy of University of Habana

THE LIBRARY, UNIVERSITY OF HABANA

Death of the Ambassador of the Dominican Republic

ON December 9, 1944 the social and diplomatic circles of Washington were saddened by the news of the sudden death of the Hon. Anselmo Copello, who since December 20, 1943 had been Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Dominican Republic in the United States, and the representative of his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

At its meeting on January 8, 1945 the Governing Board paid respect to the memory of the distinguished Dominican. The Ambassador of Nicaragua, Señor Guillermo Sevilla Sacasa, after eulogizing the work of Señor Copello, presented the following resolution, which the Board approved unanimously:

WHEREAS, In the death of His Excellency, Señor Don Anselmo Copello, former Ambassador of the Dominican Republic, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has lost a valued collaborator, and

WHEREAS, During the time that he served as a member of the Governing Board Ambassador Copello showed great interest in the cause of Pan Americanism and in the work of the Pan American Union,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To place on the minutes of this meeting an expression of its profound regret at the death of His Excellency, Señor Don Anselmo Copello.
2. To request the Director General to transmit this resolution to the Government of the Dominican Republic and to the family of the deceased.

Señor Copello, who devoted most of his life to business and especially to the tobacco industry, one of the most important in Dominican economy, was president of a large tobacco company at the time he was appointed Ambassador to Washington. In his country he had filled several honorary positions. In addition, he was President of the Chamber of Commerce, Industry, and Agriculture of Santiago de los Caballeros from 1918 to 1921; head of the municipal government of the same city from 1931 to 1941; member of the Board of Directors of the Reserve Bank of the Dominican Republic from its creation in 1941; and delegate of his country to the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture which met at Hot Springs, Virginia, in 1943.

Señor Copello is survived by his wife, Señora Argentina Soto de Copello, and five children.



Notes on

Music in the Americas

CHARLES SEEGER

Chief of the Music Division, Pan American Union

Property rights in musical works

No single factor does more to impede development of music exchange among the American Republics than the confused state of affairs respecting property rights in musical works. For a while, during the initial pioneer period of making acquaintance, the main task has been one of effecting recognition, in the various countries, that each other's music activities might be of any interest whatever. During this period, American composers, at first little enough heard in their own countries, have been glad to have their works published and performed in other countries and have gone to no little trouble and sometimes expense in making available scores and even instrumental parts. But this period is drawing to a close and composers, together with publishers who have acquired property rights in musical works, begin to look more closely into the matter of copy-right, performance right, and rights of reproduction via phonograph, sound-film, etc., of works of considerable duration.

Ever since the decline, during the 19th century, of churchly, royal, noble, or wealthy patronage, composers have been increasingly forced to regard their works as commercial goods for sale in a market, or as capital from which revenue could be gained. Probably few composers worthy of their high calling would not rather make unrestricted gifts of their works to the people of their country, their artistic world or, for that matter, to mankind at large. But there is the problem of livelihood. If that is gained in any other

form of activity, composition suffers as a side-line. And a livelihood from composition alone has, in the past, been possible for but a few men—and then, not always the most worthy. As the 20th century has progressed, however, with the development of cheaper printing, more efficient distribution, mechanical reproduction and finally electronic reproduction and broadcasting, many composers—including many worthy ones—have made very good livings indeed. It has at the same time become eminently profitable to buy or otherwise acquire rights to musical works for profit in commercial enterprise. Pirating has not been unknown. And now the prospect is at least in view that certain composers will have to meet the middlemen's terms or else be virtually excluded from reaching their public.

In the present transition, then, from the period of making acquaintance to a period when composers, rights societies, collecting agencies, publishers, and radio, phonograph and film companies shall have worked out equitable and mutually satisfactory business relations, it is a question how to proceed in the solution of many problems of daily activity.

It seems to have been generally agreed that official concerts before invited audiences, open to the public without box-office charges or with no commercial interest anywhere in the picture, should not be expected to pay performance fees for music presented, whether printed or in manuscript, though a composer's permission should be requested as a matter of courtesy, when feasible. Similarly,

in gathering together a representative collection of compositions of the younger composers of the United States for publication in Volume V of the *Boletín Latino-Americano de Música*, a non-profit enterprise, no disagreement was encountered with the terms of the project, which ignored possible business opportunities. Some composers invited to contribute did not do so. Perhaps their non-cooperation was grounded in a feeling that a business agreement should have been made. But no one broached the subject.

During the last year, however, I forwarded a request to a United States composer for a composition to be played at a non-commercial, officially sponsored concert in another Republic. There was also a possibility that the work would be broadcast over the government radio of that Republic. The composer refused, rather indignantly, asking: was not such-and-such a publisher known to have published the work, and was it not sufficiently known that such-and-such an agency collected his performance fees? In reply I advanced the usual arguments that we were still in the "promotional phase" respecting works of composers of the American Republics outside their own country, and that for a while yet we could not expect even commercial or semi-commercial enterprises, much less non-profit official ventures, to find cash for such purposes. But to no avail. I then conferred with the collecting agency. There the situation was more flexible. The thesis was advanced, however—and it is an interesting one—that the time has come when we should begin to think in terms of at least token payments—say, one dollar—per performance of a work in a foreign country where regular commercial handling of business is either not in order or else not feasible. Perhaps I should make clear that I repeat the suggestion here only for the sake of discussion.

In a radio broadcast to the composers of

the Americas on St. Cecilia's Day, November 22, 1944, I urged them: (1) to join national rights societies; (2) to amalgamate competing societies; (3) to see to it that all societies are controlled democratically by composers; (4) to form such societies where there are none; (5) to work toward an inter-American federation of composers' rights societies. I also urged them to follow with interest the proposed International Congress of such societies called by the Federación Interamericana de Sociedades de Autores y Compositores (FISAC) which met at Habana in January 1945. Had I known more definitely, at the time, of the proposal of certain societies in Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay to hold an international congress later in the coming year, I should have urged watchful interest in that also.

It may seem like putting the cart before the horse to talk about collection of performance fees before saying something of the copyright problem. This latter, it is true, underlies the former. But the former is a newer one, admitting a degree of flexibility in arrangement of a temporary *modus vivendi*, whereas the latter is so deeply embedded in codified law, international relations and complicated routine procedures, that nothing short of a major operation can be expected to cope with it. Plans for the major operation are well advanced. Soon after these NOTES are published the date will probably be known on which the Pan American Union will call an Inter-American Conference of Experts on the Protection of Intellectual Property. A third draft of a convention to supersede the Buenos Aires Convention of 1910 has now been in circulation for some time and will be presented at the Conference for discussion.

Before passing to consideration of the copyright problem it might be well to point up two phenomena which bear upon both problems under discussion here. First, copy-

right in Latin America is usually held by the composer, whether the work is printed or in manuscript, whereas in Anglo-America it is usually held by the publisher, if printed, and by the composer, if in manuscript (except in some special cases where a manuscript is placed in a publisher's rental service). Second, collection of rights tends to be made in Latin America by genuine societies of composers, whereas in the United States it is made by one publisher-composer group, the American Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers (ASCAP), and by a number of strictly commercial agencies. The American Composers' Alliance, an organization of about two hundred composers not otherwise affiliated, has to collect through a commercial agency.

Perhaps an idea of the present confusion can be gained from the following facts selected at random. The largest body of agreement is under the Buenos Aires Convention on Literary and Artistic Copyright of 1910, the parties to which are Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States of America and Uruguay—only two-thirds the total number of Republics. Argentina has entered into treaties on copyright relations with only six of the other American Republics, Mexico with four, Venezuela and Bolivia with three, Cuba with one, and so on. . . . Brazil has no copyright relations with Argentina, Bolivia, Cuba, Mexico or Venezuela. The United States has no copyright relations with Bolivia or Venezuela, and so on. . . . A few years ago it was desired to secure utmost copyright protection for *Gone with the Wind* in all of the American Republics. Eight were considered sufficient. It cost many thousands of dollars and one year's time. Each country's regulations are different, some require legal services and all, in case of a foreign work, make employ-

ment of a legal expert highly advisable.

Basic information on the copyright situation in the New World is best obtained from: *Copyright Protection in the Americas under National Legislation and Inter-American Treaties*. Law and treaty series no. 16. Juridical division, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. April, 1943.

The situation in the United States is worthy of brief review at this point, not only because it illustrates some of the complexities of the general state of affairs but because from this country comes by far the largest production of music works of all kinds and here, too, publication of music from the other Republics is becoming substantial. Hundreds of Latin American works, from scores of symphonies and chamber music to *rumbas* and *cuecas*, have been published here. On the other hand, publication of North American music lags on the rest of the continent. It is to the interest of Latin American composers, therefore, to know something of the copyright protection available in the United States as well as something of the hazards they may encounter in this country. Not all points at issue can be covered here. Quotations are from the work above cited and should not be understood to be offered as a substitute for competent legal advice.

COMMON LAW.—"As long as an unpublished work remains uncopyrighted, it is protected, like other personal property, under general principles of the common law, but if protection is claimed under the Copyright Law, the common law right is held to have been abandoned."

COPYRIGHT LAW OF 1909 AND AMENDMENTS THERETO.—"In the case of published works, or works reproduced for sale or public distribution, a copyright may be" applied for "by publishing the work with the required notice of copyright affixed to each copy. The form of copyright notice for . . . musical compositions, is 'Copyright . . . (year of publication), by . . . (name of claimant)' and it must appear on the title page or page immediately following." Two complete

copies of the work for which application is made must be deposited with The Register of Copyright, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C., or, "if the work in question is by a foreign author and is published abroad, one complete copy suffices." The fee in the first case is \$2, in the latter, \$1, and should be paid with reasonable promptness, or else a penalty may be exacted. Application, deposit, and payment of fee are not guarantee of protection. These are, however, prerequisite to securing protection, in case of infringement, through legal processes. The term of copyright is 28 years with renewal upon application for another term of like duration.

PRESIDENTIAL PROCLAMATION.—Latin American composers may apply for protection offered to citizens under the Copyright Law: (1), when domiciled in the United States at the time of publication or (2), when the Republic of which they are citizens grants to citizens of the United States benefit of copyright substantially the same as to its own citizens, in which case the author only, not a proprietor, must qualify. Such reciprocal relations (though varying slightly) have been proclaimed by the President to exist with Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, and Mexico. "A citizen of a so-called 'proclaimed' country is merely entitled to obtain copyright under the United States Copyright Act. This means that he must comply with all formalities required of citizens of the United States, including, of course, the requirement of American manufacture," if the work is in English.

"A requirement of the United States law which is frequently overlooked by foreigners printing abroad is the necessity of printing a notice of reservation of copyright on their works. This is absolutely necessary, and without it the work will not be accepted for registration in the United States. The only exception allowed by the Act is the case of publications for which ad

interim protection is sought, pending future printing in the United States."

EXISTING TREATIES.—The United States maintains copyright relations with El Salvador under the Convention of Mexico, 1902. Under the Convention of Buenos Aires, 1910, it maintains such relations with the fourteen countries already listed. The statements "Es propiedad", "Derechos reservados", "Propiedad Registrada" and others are effective under this Treaty.

Of course, a high ethic among composers and publishers is the ultimate aim. It is a pleasure to be able to record substantial improvement in this respect. A number of instances have come to our knowledge of United States publishers signing contracts with citizens of other Republics even though the work to be published was entirely unprotected by any copyright whatsoever and lying in the "public domain." In this connection it is interesting to note that self-interest alone is causing more and more music executives in the United States to avoid public domain material for publication, radio or phonograph. It is turning out to be more businesslike and to save a lot of time and trouble to pay a "fair" fee for the use of material rather than risk litigation, whether successful or unsuccessful. The job for the composer and his friends now is to see that the fair fee is fair from his viewpoint as well as from the businessman's. And it is here that his professional organization can make him strong enough to claim it and receive it.

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Reply to the request of the Argentine government

At its regular meeting on January 8, 1945 the Governing Board of the Pan American Union considered the replies received from the American governments to the note sent on October 27, 1944 by the Embassy of Argentina to the Chairman of the Board requesting in the name of the Argentine government a meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs.¹ After consideration of the matter, the Governing Board approved the following motion:

In view of the fact that the American nations cooperating in the war effort have agreed through diplomatic channels to hold a conference within the near future to study urgent war and postwar problems, and that the said Conference will offer an opportunity to the representatives of the said nations to consider the request presented by the Argentine Government,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union abstains for the time being from acting on the Argentine request.

Two days later the Argentine Chargé d'Affaires addressed the following note to the Chairman of the Governing Board:

EMBASSY OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC
Washington, January 10, 1945

MR. CHAIRMAN:

I have the honor to inform Your Excellency that so long as Argentine rights continue to be disregarded and so long as the procedure of consultation continues to be altered, as they were in the opinion of my Government by the resolu-

tion adopted by the Governing Board at its session of January 8, the Argentine Republic has decided to abstain from participating in meetings of the Pan American Union.

Please accept the assurance of my most distinguished consideration.

(S) RODOLFO GARCÍA ARIAS

The Honorable EDWARD R. STETTINIUS, JR.
*Chairman of the Governing Board of the
Pan American Union*
Washington, D. C.

Inter-American Demographic Committee

The Board considered the matter of the appointment of the Inter-American Demographic Committee provided for in a resolution adopted by the First Inter-American Demographic Congress. Since this resolution provides that the seven governments of Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, Peru, and the United States should appoint the first seven members of the Committee, and that as soon as they are named the other American governments should each have the right to appoint a member, the special committee of the Board entrusted with the consideration of the matter recommended, with the approval of the Board, that the Director General of the Pan American Union be authorized to communicate with the above-mentioned governments relative to obtaining the names of the members of the Committee. It was also voted that as soon as the members had been chosen, the Government of Mexico should be asked to set the date for the first meeting.

¹ See BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, January 1945.

Inter-American Technical Economic Conference

In view of the possibility that before March 15, 1945, the date which had been fixed for the meeting in Washington of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference, other inter-American or international conferences may be called, the Board, on the recom-

mendation of the Executive Committee on Postwar Problems, voted to postpone until June 15, 1945 the date of this Conference and authorized the Director General of the Pan American Union on behalf of the Governing Board to invite the governments of the American Republics and inter-American organizations interested in economic problems to send representatives.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Adherence to the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATION OF WAR			Adherence to the Joint Declaration by the United Nations
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	⁷ France Vichy	Germany and Italy	Japan	⁸ Bulgaria ⁹ Rumania ¹⁰ Hungary	
Argentina.....	¹ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43	² 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(³)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12- 8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12- 8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (⁴)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	⁶ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-8-45	2-8-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	G-2-11-45	2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(⁵)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42

¹ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, in view of Italy's having changed sides in the war in July 1943.

² The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

³ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁴ Mexico had no Treaty of Friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁵ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

⁶ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

⁷ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

⁸ Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

⁹ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

¹⁰ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*Press Release No. 53*, revised, U. S. Department of State, January 20, 1945.)

PART XXXVI

ARGENTINA

(Correction) Item No. 106, BULLETIN, January, 1945, should have been numbered 106o.

121a. May 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 11,433, raising the basic price of corn of the 1943-44 crop fixed by Presidential Decree No. 4,498 of February 19, 1944 (see 104c, BULLETIN, September, 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, May 5, 1944.)

145a. July 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,155, prohibiting the purchase, sale or transfer of quinine for any use except as an anti-malarial specific. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 14, 1944.)

155. (Correction) July 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 20,262. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 2, 1944.)

188. (Correction) September 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 25,661, abolishing as of October 20, 1944, the basic price for corn of the 1943-44 crop established by Presidential Decrees Nos. 4,498 of February 19, 1944 (see 104c, BULLETIN, September, 1944) and 11,433 of May 3, 1944 (see 121a above), and allowing one week after the date of the decree for producers to sell to the Agricultural Production Regulation Board any shelled corn not disposed of on the open market. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 25, 1944.)

188a. September 22, 1944. Decree No. 14,388, Ministry of Agriculture, authorizing the Agricultural Production Regulation Board to negotiate directly with the General Railway Administration for priorities for transportation of flaxseed for the manufacture of fuel oil. (*Boletín Oficial*, September 28, 1944.)

191a. October 30, 1944. Decree declaring the use, sale and transfer of all critical materials subject to control by the Department of Industry and Commerce; defining critical materials; calling for declaration of stocks; prescribing regulations to insure their use for the purposes for which they were imported and in the manufacture of vitally necessary products; and fixing penalties for infractions. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, October 31, 1944.)

BOLIVIA

1a. March 9, 1942. Supreme Decree making the maximum sale price for imported wheat flour

the same as that fixed for nationally produced wheat flour, and lowering customs duties on both products. (Mentioned in *El Diario*, La Paz, October 14, 1944.)

33a. January 11, 1944. Decree-Law providing that no cinchona bark, quinine sulphate or other quinine derivatives may be exported without previous authorization from the Ministry of the Treasury. (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, September 1944, p. 123.)

33b. January 22, 1944. Executive Decree providing that for the duration of the war women over eighteen years of age may be employed in mine work and fixing the conditions under which they are to work. (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, September 1944, p. 127.)

36a. May 9, 1944. Supreme Decree No. 105, establishing new price regulations for domestic and imported wheat flour. (Mentioned in *El Diario*, La Paz, October 14, 1944.)

38. October —, 1944. Supreme Decree abolishing the Price Control Board established by the Executive Decree of May 18, 1943 (see Bolivia 17, BULLETIN, October 1943) and giving municipal governments authority to control prices on articles of prime necessity and to distribute the quotas of trucks, flour, cotton goods and tin roofing. (Mentioned in *El Diario*, La Paz, October 11, 1944.)

39. October 6, 1944. Supreme Decree requiring the Bolivian Cement Association to turn over its entire production to the government, and authorizing the Ministry of National Economy to fix quarterly distribution quotas for the cement in accordance with a priority system. (*El Diario*, La Paz, October 7, 1944.)

40. October 7, 1944. Executive Decree abolishing the requirement of prior permit from the Ministry of the Treasury for the importation of refined and brown sugar and making provisions to prevent illegal use of these commodities. (*El Diario*, La Paz, October 14, 1944.)

41. October 7, 1944. Executive Decree repealing the Supreme Decree of March 9, 1942 (see 1a above) and making new provisions governing prices, importation, sale, and distribution of domestic and imported wheat. (*El Diario*, La Paz, October 14, 1944.)

BRAZIL

762²⁵—1. May 19, 1943. Order No. 66, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating a license service for distributing imported products and outlining its duties and functions. (Mentioned in *Diário Oficial*, September 25, 1944.)

120. Corrections to Decree No. 16,526 of September 5, 1944, which approved the regulations of the Textile Executive Committee. (*Diário Oficial*, September 11, 1944.)

122a. September 12, 1944. Order No. 276, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, amending Order No. 192 of January 17, 1944 (see Brazil 95g⁵, BULLETIN, August 1944), with reference to membership of the Supply Commission of the State of Minas Gerais. (*Diário Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

122b. September 20, 1944. Order No. 284, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, abolishing the National Technical Food Service created by Order No. 5 of October 19, 1942 (see Brazil 52c, BULLETIN, April 1943) and transferring its duties and functions to the Institute of Food Technology. (*Diário Oficial*, September 21, 1944.)

122c. September 21, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6888, granting exemption from import and other customs duties for cattle imported during the next 18 months for national consumption. (*Diário Oficial*, September 23, 1944.)

122d. September 21, 1944. Order No. 285, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, establishing compulsory registration with the Meat Division of the Supply Service of all cattle destined for home consumption during 1945 in the States of São Paulo, Minas Gerais, and Rio de Janeiro, and outlining procedures therefor. (*Diário Oficial*, September 22, 1944.)

122e. September 23, 1944. Order No. 286, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, amending Order No. 66 of May 19, 1943 (see 762²⁵—1 above) with reference to the license service for distributing imported products, listing the imported raw materials and manufactures subject to licensing, and outlining procedures for their distribution. (*Diário Oficial*, September 25, 1944.)

122f. September 27, 1944. Regulations of the Economic Planning Commission, the purpose of which is to guide and direct all productive resources of the country toward greater efficiency

and the improvement of the nation's standard of living. (*Diário Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

122g. September 29, 1944. Decree No. 16,683, approving regulations of the Economic Planning Commission (see 122f above). (*Diário Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

122b. October 2, 1944. Order No. 289, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, requiring tanners to stamp all hides and skins in accordance with Order No. 247 of July 25, 1944 (see Brazil 107, BULLETIN, November 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, October 3, 1944.)

122i. October 3, 1944. Decree No. 16,718, promulgating the agreement on the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration signed at Washington November 9, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, October 5, 1944.)

122j. October 10, 1944. Order No. 291, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, temporarily restricting in the Federal District the traffic of gasogene-equipped motor vehicles and prescribing pertinent regulations. (*Diário Oficial*, October 11, 1944; corrected in *Diário Oficial*, October 14, 1944.)

122k. October 17, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6966, amending Decree-Law No. 5766 of August 20, 1943 (see Brazil 84d, BULLETIN, January 1944), by extending for one year the time for mills that import wheat to begin construction of grain elevators. (*Diário Oficial*, October 19, 1944.)

123a. October 23, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6977, extending to subscribers to war bonds the privilege of exchanging the war bonds for other authorized securities. (*Diário Oficial*, October 25, 1944.)

124a. October 25, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6987, approving the agreement of October 12, 1944, between Brazil and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration for the establishment in Rio de Janeiro of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Brazil (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 168b below). (*Diário Oficial*, October 27, 1944.)

124b. October 25, 1944. Order No. 297, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, establishing a commission for the control of medicinal raw materials and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, October 28, 1944.)

CHILE

78c. (Correction) March 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 179. (*Diario Oficial*, June 23, 1944.)

79i. April 14, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 215, amplifying Presidential Decree No. 2,259 of December 9, 1941 (see Chile 1, BULLETIN, April 1942) to extend the rights of non-belligerency to all nations which have or shall have declared war against Germany and Japan. (*Diario Oficial*, May 10, 1944.)

79j. April 14, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 354, prescribing procedures for execution of the price control provisions of Section IV of Law No. 7,747 of December 23, 1943 (see Chile 76c, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, May 16, 1944.)

79k. April 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 379, declaring coke to be an article of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, May 3, 1944.)

79l. April 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,687, adding coal-mining machinery to the list of articles to be admitted by the customs service on a temporary basis. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1944.)

79m. April 28, 1944. Decree No. 1,095, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for wire nails of certain sizes in Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, May 3, 1944.)

79n. April 29, 1944. Decree No. 1,097, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum prices for hens' eggs in the Department of Santiago, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 3, 1944.)

79o. May 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,863, fixing a maximum price for dehydrated alcohol to be mixed with gasoline. (*Diario Oficial*, May 30, 1944.)

79p. May 6, 1944. Resolution No. 5, Petroleum Supply Committee, increasing the sale price of gasoline. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1944.)

79q. May 10, 1944. Decree No. 1,189, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum sale prices for lumber in the Department of Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, May 12, 1944.)

79r. May 13, 1944. Decree No. 1,239, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum retail prices for rubber tires and tubes

in the Province of Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, May 16, 1944.)

79a₁. May 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 553, declaring accessories and spare parts for automobiles and trucks to be articles of common consumption. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1944.)

79a₂. May 22, 1944. Decree No. 1,307, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, regulating the distribution and consumption of edible oils, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 24, 1944.)

79b₁. June 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,193, allowing free circulation of motor vehicles, and making other provisions pertaining to gasoline distribution. (*Diario Oficial*, June 17, 1944.)

80. (Correction) June 5, 1944. Decree No. 1,424, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat. (*Diario Oficial*, June 7, 1944.)

80a. June 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,239, directing the Public Transit and Transportation Board to take charge, supervise, and regulate public transportation services. (*Diario Oficial*, June 17, 1944.)

81a. June 16, 1944. Decree No. 1,562, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requisitioning all rubber in Chile, requiring declaration of stocks, appointing a Rubber Distribution Commission, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1944.)

81b. June 22, 1944. Resolution No. 11, Petroleum Supply Committee, amending Resolution No. 272 of December 5, 1942 and Resolution No. 2 of January 19, 1944 (see Chile 45a₁ and 77d, BULLETIN, November 1943 and September 1944) to fix new prices for fuel and Diesel oil. (*Diario Oficial*, June 26, 1944.)

81c. June 23, 1944. Resolution No. 5, Public Transit and Transportation Board, fixing maximum speeds for buses. (*Diario Oficial*, June 26, 1944.)

COSTA RICA

175. October 30, 1944. Notice of the government-owned Pacific Electric Railway announcing that because of shortage of tools and machinery no more outside work will be undertaken in its shops. (*La Gaceta*, November 1, 1944.)

176. November 3, 1944. Notice, Board of Economic Defense, announcing a distribution of sugar at 30 céntimos per pound, one pound to

each family. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, November 4, 1944.)

177. November 6, 1944. Legislative Resolution No. 4, suspending certain constitutional guarantees for a period of 60 days. (*La Gaceta*, November 9, 1944.)

CUBA

562₁. April 11, 1944. Resolution No. 207, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 118 of June 15, 1943 (see Cuba 423, BULLETIN, September 1943) regarding organization of the Meat Supply Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 17, 1944, p. 6114.)

664_a. October 19, 1944. Resolution No. 258, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, declaring pork, poultry, eggs, fruits, fresh vegetables and other nationally produced foodstuffs to be articles of prime necessity; fixing ceiling prices therefor at their 1943 levels; and making other provisions to assure continued supply and to prevent speculation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 23, 1944, p. 17347.)

664_b. October 20, 1944. Resolution No. 259, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 258 (see 664_a above) with reference to prices for poultry and eggs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 23, 1944, p. 17348.)

664_c. October 20, 1944. Resolution No. 260, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, broadening the powers and authority of the Meat Supply Commission (see Cuba 423, 562₁, and 586, BULLETIN, September 1943, September 1944, and above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 23, 1944, p. 17349.)

666_b. October 24, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3788, making provisions for the establishment of emergency food markets and for the reduction of rents for market space where the foodstuffs referred to in Resolution No. 258 (see 664_a above) are sold. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 25, 1944, p. 17509.)

680. November 15, 1944. Resolution No. 27, Minister of Commerce, making provisions concerning official prices, price determination and regulation, and declarations of stocks of pharmaceutical products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 1, 1944, p. 19843.)

681. November 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4015, regulating the number of pages of newspapers and organizing a permanent supervisory service to determine circulation and other

factors that will permit the fixing of equitable bases for distribution of newsprint. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 15, 1944.)

682. November 16, 1944. Resolution No. 276, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing quotas and priorities for the fourth quarter of 1944 for tires and tubes imported from Mexico. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 27, 1944, p. 19427.)

683. November 18, 1944. Resolution No. 277, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, outlining the duties and functions of the representative of the Office of Price Regulation and Supply in connection with the Petroleum Supply Committee and the Tire and Tube Rationing Office. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 27, 1944, p. 19429.)

684. November 20, 1944. Decree, Minister of Commerce, giving the General Import-Export Agency supervisory powers with reference to the publishing industry and the use of newsprint as provided in Presidential Decree No. 4015 of November 10, 1944 (see 681 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 27, 1944, p. 19427.)

685. November 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4302, appropriating funds for the establishment of the Indemnity Fund for War Maritime Accidents established by Presidential Decree No. 3163 of October 31, 1942 (see Cuba 271, BULLETIN, February 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 6, 1944, p. 20135.)

686. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4387, increasing the membership of the Advisory Committee of the Import-Export Agency concerned with alcohol and alcoholic beverages (see Cuba 664, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1944, p. 20867.)

687. December 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4440, repealing Decrees No. 2396 of August 2, 1944 and No. 3127 of September 12, 1944 (see Cuba 632 and 651_a, BULLETIN, November 1944 and January 1945), which authorized duty-free importation of equipment and parts for rail, motor, air, and maritime public carrier enterprises. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 14, 1944, p. 20998.)

688. December 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4482, making funds available for the payment of five pesos per person for the transportation of enlisted army and navy personnel, in order to ease the financial difficulties of transportation companies which had been transporting such persons free of charge. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 14, 1944, p. 21000.)

689. December 14, 1944. Resolution No. 278, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, making inapplicable, with reference to specified products and specified provinces, the provisions of Resolutions Nos. 262 and 269 of October 23 and 31, 1944 (see Cuba 665 and 672, BULLETIN, January 1945), which froze certain construction materials and established rules governing their distribution. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 19, 1944, p. 21763.)

690. December 14, 1944. Resolution No. 279, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 45 of September 9, 1942 (see Cuba 224, BULLETIN, January 1943), regarding permits for the purchase of tires and tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 19, 1944, p. 21764.)

691. December 14, 1944. Resolution No. 280, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, reorganizing local price commissions and outlining their duties and functions (see Cuba 257, 319, and 465, BULLETIN, February, April, and December 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 19, 1944, p. 21765.)

692. December 19, 1944. Resolution No. 281, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing regulations regarding permits for the purchase of fertilizers in accordance with Resolution No. 271 of November 6, 1944 (see Cuba 675, BULLETIN, February 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 20, 1944, p. 21891.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

148. (*Gaceta Oficial*, *October 11, 1944.)

149. November 6, 1944. Executive Decree No. 2257, making further provisions with regard to the longer working hours authorized by Law No. 152 of January 13, 1943 and Regulation No. 2189 of September 29, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 65 and 147, BULLETIN, June 1943 and February 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 8, 1944.)

150. November 7, 1944. Executive Decree No. 2263, freezing house and other dwelling rents at their present levels, prohibiting the eviction of tenants except under specified circumstances, and making other pertinent regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1944.)

ECUADOR

81a. August 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 639, exempting the balsa industry from payment

of certain sales taxes during 1944. (*Registro Oficial*, September 18, 1944.)

90. September 16, 1944. Legislative decree ordering the Central Bank of Ecuador to continue permanently to maintain the rediscount operating fund that has been in effect with the former Guayaquil Mortgage Bank (now the Development Bank of Guayas), and ordering the Bank to maintain a similar rediscount fund, to a maximum of 25,000,000 sucres, for operations with the Development Banks of the coastal provinces, to facilitate credit operations in aid of rice producers. (*Registro Oficial*, September 16, 1944.)

91. September 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 178, placing the National Department of Information and Publicity, created by Decree No. 757 of August 9, 1944 (see Ecuador 85, BULLETIN, January 1945), under the jurisdiction of the General Public Administration Office. (*Registro Oficial*, October 20, 1944.)

92. October 11, 1944. Legislative decree providing that all nationally produced sugar will be purchased by the Government through the Central Bank for distribution through local subsistence boards; fixing prices for such sugar; authorizing loans to sugar producers; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Registro Oficial*, October 13, 1944.)

93. November 18, 1944. Executive order fixing a new lower rate of dollar exchange (13.40 sucres for purchase and 13.50 for sale), and making other pertinent provisions as a means of bringing down prices for imported merchandise, thus alleviating the high cost of living. (*El Comercio*, Quito, November 19, 1944.)

GUATEMALA

123. November 11, 1944. Decree No. 13, Revolutionary Junta, recognizing the provisional government headed by General Charles de Gaulle as the legitimate government of France. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 5, 1944.)

124. November 22, 1944. Decree No. 16, Revolutionary Junta, repealing the requirements of Presidential Decree No. 2,963 of October 5, 1942 (see Guatemala 40, BULLETIN, January 1943), but leaving the exportation of strategic minerals under control of the Office of Economic-Financial Coordination. (*Diario de Centro América*, November 24, 1944.)

125. November 30, 1944. Decree No. 24, Revolutionary Junta, fixing, in view of increased

living costs, a temporary minimum and maximum figure for government pensions. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 1, 1944.)

HAITI

98a. August 4, 1944. Executive Order No. 416, making available to the Department of Foreign Affairs a credit of 2,500 gourdes for the expenses of representation of Haitian interests in German-occupied territories and certain other European countries. (*Le Moniteur*, August 10, 1944.)

MEXICO

267a. October 6, 1944. Decree approving the notes exchanged between the Governments of Great Britain and Mexico regarding the conscription of nationals by the armies of both countries (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 138a, below). (*Diario Oficial*, December 29, 1944.)

279. December 1, 1944. Decree by which the Government requisitioned the express service operated by a specified company on the Southern Pacific Railway of Mexico, because of a strike and the consequent paralyzing effect on the national economy. (*Diario Oficial*, December 2, 1944.)

280. December 1, 1944. Law creating the Nutritional Disease Hospital (*Hospital de Enfermedades de la Nutrición*) as a part of the country's war and post-war plans for the public welfare; outlining its duties and functions; and making other provisions concerning its finances and administration. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, December 30, 1944.)

281. December 2, 1944. Decree authorizing for all railways in the country a temporary emergency rate increase during 1945, with the exception of freight rates on metals and minerals, and repealing the decree of October 7, 1943 (see Mexico 205b, BULLETIN, April 1944), which froze freight rates on articles whose prices had been frozen. (*Diario Oficial*, December 2, 1944.)

282. December 11, 1944. Decree amending the decree of August 11, 1942, which restricted the importation, exportation, transport, commerce, or possession of United States currency with the exception of two-dollar bills (see Mexico 74, BULLETIN, November 1942), by exempting from the restrictions bills in denominations of 20 dol-

lars or less. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, December 30, 1944.)

283. December 14, 1944. Decree abolishing as of December 31, 1944, the peace planning commission created by the decree of February 15, 1944 (see Mexico 235, BULLETIN, May 1944) and providing that post-war problems will henceforth be studied by the various government departments. (*Diario Oficial*, December 29, 1944.)

284. December 22, 1944. Decree adding specified articles to the list of those subjected to export control by the decree of June 15, 1944 (see Mexico 247c, BULLETIN, October 1944). Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, December 30, 1944.)

285. December 29, 1944. Resolution, Chief of the Department of the Federal District and the Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit, supplementing the list of articles of prime necessity for which prices were frozen in the Federal District by the resolution of November 22, 1944 (see Mexico 278, BULLETIN, February 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, January 2, 1945.)

NICARAGUA

64. September 5, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 318, repealing the restrictions placed on Chinese immigration by the law of May 5, 1930, and directing the President to regulate the admission of Chinese with due regard for numbers and occupations. (*La Gaceta*, September 25, 1944.)

PANAMA

91. October 8, 1943. Decree No. 24, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, approving prices fixed by officials of David District for beef, pork, and seafood. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1944.)

118. October 30, 1944. Decree No. 56, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, amending Decree No. 24 of October 8, 1943 (see 91 above), by fixing new wholesale and retail prices for beef, pork, and seafood in David. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1944.)

PARAGUAY

37. (Correction) Presidential Decree No. 18,755. (*Revista Municipal*, Asunción, September 1944.)

55a. June 22, 1944. Decree No. 4171, prescribing regulations governing the Paraguayan

Meat Corporation (see Paraguay 53, BULLETIN, January and February 1945). (Mentioned in *El País*, Asunción, November 22, 1944.)

57a. September 1, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 5040, fixing the zone of influence of each sugar mill in the republic and prohibiting the manufacture of molasses, except by special permit, within such zones, in accordance with Decree No. 18,755 of June 23, 1943 (see Paraguay 37, BULLETIN, December 1943, as corrected above), in order to insure the manufacture of an adequate supply of sugar. (*Revista Municipal*, Asunción, September 1944.)

57b. September 2, 1944. Resolution No. 11, General Traffic Office, prohibiting bus service on Sundays and holidays on lines in areas also served by street railways, in order to conserve gasoline. (*Revista Municipal*, Asunción, September 1944.)

62. October 26, 1944. Resolution No. 3, Paraguayan Meat Corporation, requiring livestock owners to make declarations of their stock and of the number of head of cattle they expect to offer for sale during 1945, and prescribing procedures therefor. (*El País*, Asunción, November 2, 1944.)

63. November 3, 1944. Resolution No. 4, Paraguayan Meat Corporation, making further price regulations for meat. (*El País*, Asunción, November 6, 1944.)

64. November 7, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, authorizing an emergency increase in the price of *carburante nacional* (a type of liquid fuel). (*El País*, Asunción, November 8, 1944.)

PERU

130a. July 20, 1944. Supreme decree fixing minimum wages as of August 1, 1944, for private employees in Lima, Callao, and their environs, in view of the increased cost of living; creating a commission to study wage readjustments for employees not covered by this decree; and making other pertinent provisions. (*El Peruano*, July 22, 1944.)

139a. October 6, 1944. Supreme Decree expropriating two merchant ships for use in transporting supplies essential to the food distribution, industry, and defense of the country. (*El Peruano*, November 20, 1944.)

140a. October 10, 1944. Resolution No. 637, Ministry of Agriculture, authorizing producers to raise the factory price on spirit vinegar and

fixing new ceiling factory and retail prices for that product. (*El Peruano*, November 11, 1944.)

142. November 20, 1944. Executive Decree making the Special Committee of Sugar Producers responsible for the supply and distribution of sugar for national consumption, for raw materials required by the Industrial Alcohol Monopoly for the manufacture of fuel alcohol, and for all action necessary to insure adequate supplies of these products. (*El Comercio*, Lima, November 21, 1944.)

143. November 22, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Agriculture, requiring Callao fishing companies to supply all the bonito needed by consumers in Lima, Callao, and suburbs; and making other provisions pertaining to prices and distribution of bonito. (*El Peruano*, November 28, 1944.)

URUGUAY

235a. October 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3100/944, outlining procedures for the distribution among farmers of a quantity of black baling wire and fixing prices therefor. (*Diario Oficial*, October 21, 1944.)

237. October 27, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3878, declaring terminated the labors of the commission created by Decree No. 1454 of April 11, 1942 (see Uruguay 24a, BULLETIN, August 1942), for the purpose of studying the possibility of manufacturing gas masks in the country, and appointing another commission to continue the studies already begun. (*Diario Oficial*, November 17, 1944.)

238. October 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1340/944, fixing among meat packers distribution quotas for exportable meats, to be effective for the duration of the war. (*Diario Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

239. November 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1265/943, fixing prices for South African type coal. (*Diario Oficial*, November 17, 1944.)

240. November 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3100/944, fixing prices for tin recovered in the country. (*Diario Oficial*, November 15, 1944.)

241. November 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3230/944, fixing prices for refined sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

242. November 22, 1944. Presidential Resolution authorizing a 10 percent increase in freight

rates for certain kinds of goods, exclusive of specified articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

VENEZUELA

104a. April 1, 1943. Resolution No. 3, Ministry of the Treasury, exempting from the requirement of prior permit the orders already being filled in the United States which have been paid for by this date and can be shipped during April and May. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 1, 1943.)

108a. May 31, 1943. Resolution No. 6, Ministry of the Treasury, exempting from the requirement of prior permit orders for which export licenses were obtained in the United States before May 31, shipment to be made in June or the following month. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 31, 1943.)

170a. August 16, 1944. Resolution No. 315, Ministry of the Treasury, extending until December 7, 1944, the exemption of Roman cement from import duties (see Venezuela 86, and 150, BULLETIN, July 1943 and August 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 16, 1944.)

170b. August 16, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, extending until December 7, 1944, the scale of charges for shipments of imported Roman cement fixed by Resolution No. 223, Ministry of the Treasury, December 6, 1943 (see Venezuela 131, and 151, BULLETIN, August, 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 16, 1944.)

183. October 17, 1944. Resolution No. 9, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling prices and making provisions for distribution of beef and cattle on the hoof in specified regions of the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 17, 1944.)

184. November 4, 1944. Resolution No. 12, National Supply Commission, repealing Resolution No. 23, National Transportation Board, March 23, 1944 (see Venezuela 146, BULLETIN, July 1944); amending Resolution No. 37-7, National Price Regulation Board, July 29, 1942 (see Venezuela 50, BULLETIN, November 1942); and making new provisions concerning used tires. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 4, 1944.)

185. November 8, 1944. Resolution No. 13, National Supply Commission, repealing Resolution No. 29, National Transport Board, July 3, 1944 (see Venezuela 160, BULLETIN, November 1944) and fixing prices for specified models of new motor vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 8, 1944.)

186. November 16, 1944. Resolution No. 14, National Supply Commission, fixing sale prices for raw milk in specified regions of the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 16, 1944.)

187. November 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 269, creating the National Production Promotion Board charged with making studies and recommending the granting of credit where it will stimulate the production of the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 20, 1944.)

188. November 18, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, providing that, as of the same date, prior import permits will be required only for a specified list of products, and repealing previous legislation concerning the same matter (see Venezuela 100, BULLETIN, August 1943; 104a and 155a above; 119 and 121, BULLETIN, February and April 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1944.)

189. November 18, 1944. Resolution No. 391, Ministry of the Treasury, extending until March 7, 1945, the provisions of Resolution No. 315 of August 16, 1944 (see 170a above), allowing duty-free importation of Roman cement. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 18, 1944.)

190. November 24, 1944. Resolution No. 15, National Supply Commission, fixing distribution quotas and ceiling prices for truck and bus tires imported from Brazil in October. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 24, 1944.)

191. November 24, 1944. Resolution No. 16, National Supply Commission, repealing Resolution No. 13, November 8, 1944 (see 185 above) and fixing prices for specified models of new motor vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 24, 1944.)

192. November 25, 1944. Resolution No. 17, National Supply Commission, modifying Resolution No. 28 of the National Transport Board (see Venezuela 158d, BULLETIN, January, 1945), regulating the transportation to Caracas of merchandise from the port of La Guaira. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

138a. February 29, 1944. Exchange of notes (the first one dated February 25, 1944) between the Governments of Great Britain and Mexico, constituting an agreement on the conscription of nationals for the armies of the two countries. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, Mexico, December 29, 1944.)

168a. October 9, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Paraguay and the Inter-American Development Commission, by virtue of which a commission on industrial development will operate in Paraguay for the study, guidance, and development of determined basic Paraguayan industries (leather, vegetable oils, and lumber). (*El País*, Asunción, October 27, 1944.)

168b. October 12, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Brazil and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944) for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Brazil. (*Diário Oficial*, Rio de Janeiro, October 27, 1944.)

172. December 9, 1944. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Venezuela for a two-year extension from March

24, 1945, of the agreement of March 24, 1941, for assignment of a United States Naval Mission to Venezuela. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 17, 1944.)

173. January 1, 1945. Adherence of France to the Declaration by the United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 7, 1945.)

174. January 20, 1945. Agreement concerning an armistice between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, under the terms of which Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. Press Release No. 53, revised, U. S. Department of State, January 20, 1945.)

Pan American News

Comments on the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals

THE Inter-American Juridical Committee, having before it the Proposals for the establishment of a general international organization submitted by the conference held at Dumbarton Oaks, and acting in pursuance of the authority conferred upon the Committee by Resolution XXV of the Meeting of Foreign Ministers held at Rio de Janeiro, which entrusted the Committee with the formulation of specific recommendations relative to international organization in the juridical and political fields and in the field of international security, submitted in December 1943 to the American Governments extensive observations and recommendations looking to the possible improvement of the provisions

of the Charter of the international organization to be established in accordance with the Proposals.

The Committee endeavored to keep strictly within the framework of the Proposals, in order that its suggestions might facilitate the formulation of a definitive agreement. It realized that a number of the provisions of the Proposals might have been deliberately drawn up in general terms, so as to invite comments of a constructive character. Its suggestions, therefore, took into account the latitude offered for alternative proposals within the general scheme.

The following members of the Committee, which sits in Rio de Janeiro, signed the report: Francisco Campos (Brazil), Charles G. Fenwick (United States), L. A. Podestá Costa (Argentina), F. Nieto del Río

(Chile), and A. Gómez Robledo (Mexico).

Copies of the report may be obtained from the Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C.

Boundary between Panama and Costa Rica

Uncertainties and disputes of more than a century came to a felicitous solution on September 18, 1944, in a simple noonday ceremony at the point where the Inter-American Highway crosses the newly established border between Panama and Costa Rica. The drawing of the boundary line had been carried to a successful conclusion by engineers of the two countries under supervision of a Chilean arbitrator and advisor, as provided in the treaty which the two countries signed May 1, 1941. The adviser, Engineer Santiago Labarca Labarca, attended the ceremony as Ambassador Extraordinary of the Republic of Chile.

In the presence of President Teodoro Picado of Costa Rica, President Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia of Panama, and engineers and civil and military officials of Chile, Costa Rica and Panama, notes declaring that the work of delimitation had been completed and accepted were signed and exchanged by the Ministers of Foreign Relations of the neighbor republics, Señor Samuel Lewis, Jr., of Panama and Señor Julio Acosta García of Costa Rica. Chile's national holiday was chosen for the date in appreciation of the technical and diplomatic contributions made by the southern republic through Señor Labarca and his predecessor, the late Carlos Enrique.

Inside a concrete frame across which the line of the boundary had been traced stood the table on which the notes were signed. Chairs were placed on their respective territory for dignitaries of Panama and Costa Rica, and in the center of the table was the flag of Chile. When the two foreign min-

isters had signed and exchanged the notes of acceptance, the pen they had used was given to Señor Labarca, to be presented to President Juan Antonio Ríos of Chile. Flags were then hoisted on the two sides of the boundary; the flag of Costa Rica was raised by Señor Ernesto B. Fábrega, Ambassador of Panama in Costa Rica, and the flag of Panama by Señor Enrique Fonseca Zúñiga, Ambassador of Costa Rica in Panama.

Señor Héctor Mujica Pumarino, Chilean Ambassador in Panama, spoke for his government in presenting to the two foreign ministers the first of three tablets which are to be given by the Chilean government for the monument that will be erected on the boundary. The tablet is made of bronze melted down from cannon used by Chile in achieving national independence, and bears this inscription:

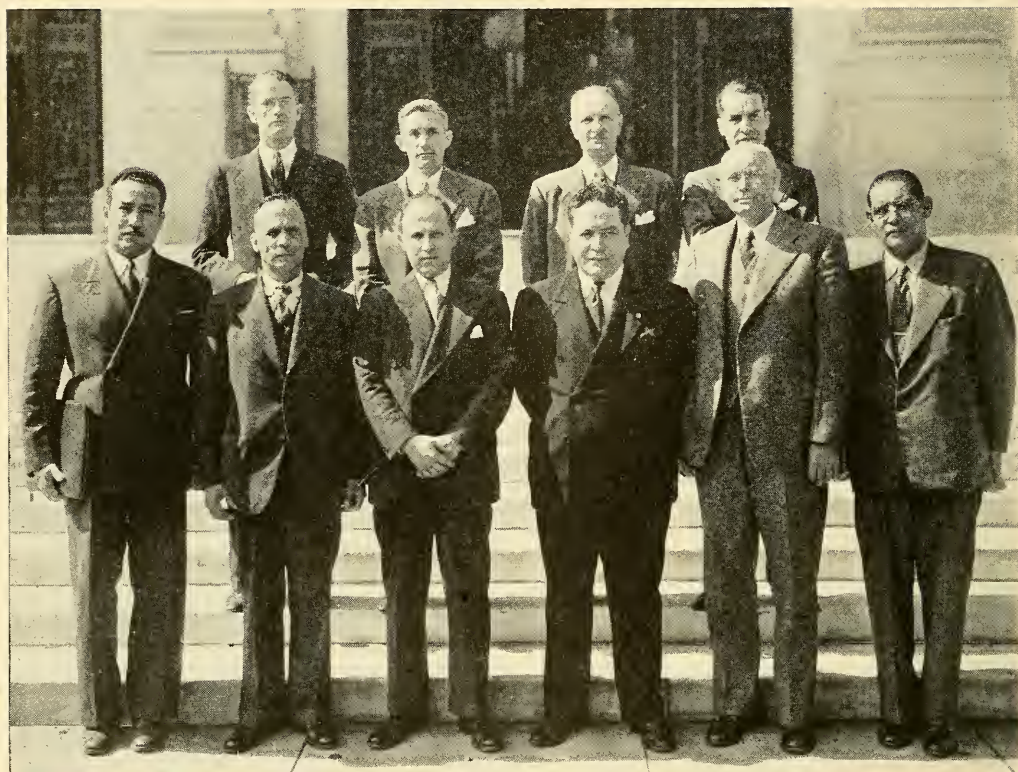
It has been a great honor for the president and people of Chile to contribute to the solution of the conflict which for many years divided the sister republics of Costa Rica and Panama. The example that they have set should serve as a model for composing all international differences. So may the tragic phantom of war be banished from the earth, and so may cooperation come about among all nations.

JUAN ANTONIO RÍOS,
President of the Republic of Chile.

Progress of the Mexican-United States Agricultural Commission

During the week October 8-14, 1944, the Mexican-United States Agricultural Commission held its second semi-annual meeting in Washington, D. C., at which time reports prepared since the Commission's first meeting in Mexico City in July 1944 (see BULLETIN, September 1944, p. 534) were reviewed and new and broader lines of joint action agreed upon.

The opening session was held on October 9 in the Governing Board Room of the Pan American Union. In addition to Commis-



MEXICAN-AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL COMMISSION AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Photograph taken following the inaugural session of the Commission's second semi-annual meeting, October 9, 1944. Front row, left to right: Ing. Darío L. Arrieta M., Director General of Agriculture; Ing. Alfonso González Gallardo, Under Secretary of Agriculture of Mexico; Mr. Leslie A. Wheeler, Director, Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations; Dr. Guillermo Quesada Bravo, Director General of Livestock Service; Dr. Eugene C. Auchter, Administrator of the Agricultural Research Administration; Ing. Gonzalo González H., Director General of Rural Economy. Back row, left to right: Mr. John J. Haggerty, Secretary of the United States Section; Mr. Carl N. Gibboney, Chief of the Food Production and Procurement Division, Foreign Economic Administration; Dr. Lester DeWitt Mallory, Agricultural Attaché of the American Embassy at Mexico City; Señor Ignacio de la Torre y Formento, Secretary of the Mexican Section.

sion members and their technical advisers, a number of guests from the Mexican Embassy, the United States Departments of State, Agriculture, and Commerce, the Foreign Economic Administration, and the Pan American Union were present. All succeeding business sessions of the Commission were held at the United States Department of Agriculture.

At the Commission's first meeting in Mexico City, the procedure was adopted of first determining important common prob-

lems and then assigning them for study and report to permanent joint committees of experts from the Agricultural Departments of both countries. Since that first meeting interim joint committees have been functioning and at the Washington meeting they submitted progress reports covering a wide range of problems, such as the exchange of the results of scientific research; the protection and development of natural resources; economic studies of special commodities; plant and animal quarantines, seed and live-

stock certification, and related problems; improvement of living conditions in rural areas; the training of agricultural scientists and technicians; joint action to combat crop and livestock plagues; and increased accuracy and uniformity in obtaining and publishing agricultural statistics.

A number of these reports were adopted and several permanent joint committees were created to carry the work forward. With regard to the studies of special commodities, reports were reviewed on prospective United States markets for Mexican coffee, vanilla, garlic, onions, pineapples, and bananas; tentative reports regarding the future United States market for Mexican cattle, henequen, and vegetables are to be sent to the Mexican Section of the Commission for further study; and reports on ixtle and chickpeas are to undergo further analysis by the United States Section before being submitted to the Mexican Section. A permanent committee was also created to study and report upon the establishment of uniform standards and grades for agricultural products which are or have possibilities of becoming important trade items between the two countries. This work will particularly concern bananas and certain other seasonal fruits and vegetables, and listed on the program for prompt attention are cattle, meats, and hard fibers, especially henequen and ixtle.

The Commission also formulated two new research projects, one being a joint technical study on cotton and the other a joint research undertaking in forest development, conservation, and utilization.

On October 11, in lieu of business sessions, the Mexican members of the Commission and their consultants spent the day at the Research Center of the United States Department of Agriculture at Beltsville, Maryland, where they had an opportunity to inspect some of the Center's research developments. Particular interest was shown by

the visitors in the corn breeding, sugar cane hybridization, hog, poultry, and cattle breeding, and animal nutrition projects.

In view of the Commission's decision to alternate its semi-annual meetings between the two countries, tentative plans were adopted to hold the next meeting in May 1945 at Guadalajara, State of Jalisco, Mexico.

Motion pictures in Bolivia

Bolivia's first talking picture company, Estudios Cinematográficos Bolivia, has recently been organized in La Paz, and is beginning its production with a series of four all-Bolivian newsreels.

During 1945 it plans to produce five documentary films on Bolivian subjects and to begin work on its first full-length picture. The latter is to be an adaptation of the great national novel, *Juan de la Rosa*, by Nataniel Aguirre. The outdoor scenes of this picture will be filmed in the very spots where the action of the book took place.

Irrigation in Ecuador

A new National Irrigation Bureau (*Caja Nacional de Riego*), capitalized at 10,000,000 sucres, has been established in Ecuador for the purpose of studying, developing, and constructing irrigation systems wherever it is deemed advisable in the country. Half the initial capital represents the contribution of the Government in cash and in kind, and of the other half, 80 percent was provided by the Insurance Bureau and the remaining 20 percent by the Pension Bureau. The new Bureau is authorized to issue bonds, guaranteed by its own capital; and, in cooperation with the Ministry of Public Works, to buy or expropriate necessary land and to determine and to take necessary steps with reference to the financing and use of irrigation works.

A legislative decree enabling municipalities to contract directly with the National

Irrigation Bureau for the financing and construction of irrigation systems was approved on November 9, 1944. It authorizes local governments to use up to 40 percent of their revenues, exclusive of funds for essential health and sanitation services, plus any special revenues, for irrigation projects. When the irrigation works are completed, municipalities must earmark all revenues derived therefrom for cancellation of their debt to the National Bureau. The financing authority thus delegated to local governments will considerably facilitate and speed up the work of the National Bureau, and the whole program promises immense long-range benefits to Ecuadorean agriculture and national economy.

Mexican holiday

The 134th anniversary of Mexican independence was widely celebrated in California on September 15-16, 1944, by the many groups of Mexican nationals now engaged

in agricultural work in the state under the terms of the farm labor agreement entered into by Mexico and the United States in August 1942. (See BULLETIN, September 1944, pp. 500-506.)

Reports from 27 California counties and from Phoenix, Arizona, as well, present a picture of impressive programs, ceremonies, parades, dances, dinners, barbecues, motion pictures, and similar festivities arranged by the workers with hearty cooperation from Mexican consuls, individual growers and growers' associations, mayors and other public officials, resident Mexican nationals, Pan American Societies, churches, labor officials, the State Extension Service, and the War Food Administration. Realizing the significance of the holiday to the Mexicans, employers almost unanimously accepted the idea of releasing the men from work for the celebration and of furnishing transportation and countless other facilities to make the event a success. In many instances, how-



Paul Stover Studio

MEXICANS ENJOY OAKLAND RECREATION CENTER

The Pan American Association of Oakland, California, has a comprehensive program, including forum meetings, lectures, motion pictures, dinners, and aid to Latin American students.

A special activity of major importance is the Mexican hospitality project, which provides recreational advantages for the Mexicans brought into the United States by joint official action to help in the manpower shortage. There are tri-weekly programs when games, music, dancing, and refreshments are enjoyed. It is planned to open a library and reading room stocked with English and Spanish books, newspapers and magazines.

The president of the Association is Harvey B. Lyon.

ever, the workers themselves willingly planned their festivities so as not to interfere with their work, considering that the holiday occurred during the peak harvest season.

A noteworthy feature of these many celebrations, particularly from the international viewpoint, is that in most localities the whole community enthusiastically participated.

The Pilmaiquén power plant

The Government Development Corporation's plan for the electrification of Chile passed an important milestone with the opening last November of the Pilmaiquén hydroelectric plant, designed by Chilean engineers and erected by Chilean builders. Serving the territory between Valdivia and Puerto Montt, a region rich in wheat, cattle, and forests, this plant has brought rural electrification to the industrial and agricultural center of Southern Chile, and has already reduced the cost of industrial power there to less than half its former figure. In addition to the power station, which has an initial capacity of 12,000 h.p. and will eventually produce a maximum of 45,000 h.p., the project includes a housing development for its personnel, a factory for concrete posts needed to support the cables, and a bridge over the Pilmaiquén River. The electrical machinery was furnished through the cooperation of the United States.

Mexican oil settlement

The obligation of providing the funds for the oil expropriation indemnification payments agreed upon by the Mexican and United States Governments in November 1941 and September 1943 (see BULLETIN, August 1942, p. 472, and December 1943, p. 715) was placed on the shoulders of Petróleos Mexicanos, the government oil administration, by a presidential decree dated December 1, 1944.

The law that established Petróleos Mexicanos, as amended, provided for payments by the organization to the Mexican Government equal to 3 percent per year of its property valuation, plus certain contributions based on the volume of petroleum produced each year. Since the indemnification agreement with the United States, however, the Mexican Government has been paying part of the periodic amounts from other funds because the contribution of Petróleos Mexicanos was insufficient. The Mexican Government fully recognizes that the oil indemnifications represent a direct responsibility of the national budget, but inasmuch as the plan was that the nationalized petroleum industry should assume the charges resulting from the expropriation settlement, the Government felt called upon to make definite provisions whereby the necessary funds would be forthcoming from the oil industry itself.

Under the new decree, therefore, the Government will continue to pay the full amounts of the indemnification as they fall due, but Petróleos Mexicanos is specifically obliged to reimburse the Government for the total sums. To do this the oil administration is authorized to issue credit certificates, if necessary, in favor of the Government, to be redeemed semi-annually, and 10 percent of the oil administration's gross income, figured after deducting the amount of federal taxes due thereon, must be allocated to the redemption of the credit certificates.

New national park in Venezuela

Venezuela's newest National Park is named for Agustín Codazzi, a celebrated explorer and geographer of Venezuela in the 19th century, who made an important contribution to the study of the national flora and fauna.

Situated in the State of Aragua, at the spot where the Caracas-Maracay and Caracas-Llanos highways converge, the Park com-

prises about 115 acres of venerable samans, or rain trees. The saman is as useful as well as a very beautiful tree. Its wide-spreading branches offer abundant shade and its pods make excellent fodder for domestic animals. In some regions it attains a height of 100 feet, and the trunks are often more than six feet in diameter.

Avenues are being built for the convenience of visitors to the Park, but these are for pedestrians only. No vehicles will be allowed.

Geological Institute of Peru

A recent supreme decree in Peru provided for the establishment under government auspices of a Geological Institute. The new organization's major task will be to make a geological map of the country and an inventory of its mineral resources. In this work the Institute will have the cooperation of various official technical offices, agencies, and schools; and the Institute in turn will cooperate with other geological and geographical bodies throughout the Hemisphere in order to complete the geological map of the continent which was the subject of a resolution of the Eighth American Scientific Congress that met in Washington in 1940.

Venezuelan air line

It is hoped that the organization of the new "Taca" Air Line of Venezuela will effect a real revolution in supplying Caracas with foodstuffs from isolated and remote regions of the country. The management of Taca has been planning its itineraries with this in mind, thinking especially of carrying pork and beef from the livestock raising regions where, because of lack of transportation facilities and the high cost of driving the cattle to the markets in the capital, the producers' profits have been curtailed. The principal cattle-producing region of Vene-

zuela is in the state of Apure. Even under the most favorable conditions, the trip by truck from San Fernando, the capital of Apure, to Caracas takes two days; by steamer to La Guaira, two weeks. Since an airplane makes the trip easily in an hour and a half from San Fernando to the airport at Maiquetía, it would be possible with the new transport system to have the cattle butchered in San Fernando and the meat brought fresh to Caracas daily. The saving in transportation thus effected should lower meat prices to the consumer and at the same time help the ranchers.

Department of State travel grants

From July 1 through December 1944, 16 United States professors or technical experts received travel grants as visiting professors and consultants, or for special projects, in the other American Republics, under the program for the exchange of professors and leaders between this country and the Latin American republics administered by the Department of State.

This program of cultural and scientific interchange among the Republics of the Western Hemisphere, begun in July 1940, is administered by the Division of Cultural Cooperation, Department of State. In the case of the visiting professorships, the Department of State and the receiving university jointly assume the financing of the program. Upon the request from a university in one of the other American republics, the Department of State consults with other government and private agencies, and prepares a panel from which the professor is selected.

In addition to these visiting professorships and consultants, the Department of State has awarded a limited number of travel grants to specialists requested by public or private agencies in the other American Republics; and to specialists and investigators engaged

in scientific or cultural projects of mutual interest to the United States and the other American Republics. The latter grants are financed entirely, or in part, by the Department of State.

The following have received grants for visiting professorships: Dr. J. A. Thompson, Professor of Romance Languages, Louisiana State University, lecturer at the University of Habana Summer School, Habana, Cuba; Dr. W. E. B. DuBois, Professor of Sociology, Atlanta University, lecturer at the Haitian Summer School, Port-au-Prince, Haiti; Dr. James C. Andrews, Professor of Medicine, University of North Carolina, professor at the University of Guatemala under the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations; Dr. E. W. Lindstrom, Vice-Dean, Iowa State College, visiting professor at the School of Agriculture, National University, Medellín, Colombia; Dr. F. C. Hayes, Head of the Department of Modern Languages, Guilford College, Visiting Professor of English at Chuquisaca University, Sucre, Bolivia; Professor V. L. Annis, Associate Professor of Architecture, University of Southern California, Visiting Professor of Architecture at the University of Guatemala; Dr. Walter H. Delaplaine, assistant professor of Economics, Duke University, Visiting Professor of Economics at the National University, Asunción, Paraguay; Mr. J. G. Bradshaw, of Seattle, Washington, Visiting Professor at and adviser to the Principal of the Gimnasio Moderno, Bogotá, Colombia.

The following received renewals of their grants for 1945: Dr. Donald Pierson, who has served as Visiting Professor of Sociology for the past several years at the Escola Livre de Sociologia e Política, São Paulo, Brazil; Dr. Morton D. Zabel, Professor of English, Loyola University, Chicago, Visiting Pro-

fessor of American Literature for the past year in the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters, University of Brazil, Rio de Janeiro.

Several persons received grants to serve as advisers or consultants in their special field of investigation: Dr. Ruth Leslie, Assistant Professor of Home Economics, University of Texas, serving as Bio-chemical Technician in the Brazilian Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; Dr. C. L. Christenson, Professor of Economics, Indiana University, serving as adviser on price control in the Costa Rican Ministry of Finance, San José, Costa Rica; and Dr. Clay Huff, Professor of Bacteriology, University of Chicago, guest investigator in the Institute of Public Health and Tropical Diseases, Mexico, D. F.

Three men received grants for special projects: Dr. E. B. Helm, Head of the Department of Music, Western College, to visit Brazil to study Brazilian music; Dr. Samuel F. Bemis, Professor of History, Yale University, to visit Cuba to carry on archival research and confer with Cuban historians; Mr. Aubrey Gates, Associate Director, Agricultural Extension Service, Little Rock, Arkansas, to study extension education work in several of the other American republics.

Since the Department of State began its program for the exchange of professors and leaders of thought and opinion between the United States and the other American republics, some 250 such professors and leaders have visited the United States, and a lesser number from the United States have visited the other American republics. In addition, the Department of State serves as a clearing house for similar programs with the Latin American republics carried on by other government agencies and by professional groups, scientific and educational foundations, and other private agencies.

75th anniversary of La Prensa

The 75th anniversary of the founding of *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires brought messages of congratulation and appreciation from all over the world, a rich testimonial to its distinguished services as a newspaper and a social institution.

Founded October 18, 1869, by José C. Paz, the paper continues today under the joint direction of his son, Ezequiel P. Paz, and grandson, Alberto Gainza Paz.

La Prensa has always operated on the principle of service to the nation. Its building houses a free medical and dental clinic, an employment bureau, and a library of more than 90,000 volumes, all open to the public. The Institute of Popular Lectures brings to its lecture and concert hall the most noted scholars and speakers of Europe and America.

The spirit of independence and devotion to duty which has always characterized *La Prensa* is well expressed in these words from its anniversary editorial: "A daily newspaper which has given itself a mission like ours must not be an instrument of propaganda even for the best cause, because its own cause is in its mission, and by serving it faithfully it can cooperate with all worthy ends. . . .

Seventy-five years of journalistic action is a long time; the event is one of deep significance for us; but from the point of view of our duty, today is like yesterday and like what we suppose tomorrow will be. Insofar as it lies with us to decide, we shall always be at our post, determined to do our duty, simply, with dignity, and without vainglory."

The Third Book Fair in Mexico City

During the three weeks beginning October 31, 1944, Mexico's Third Annual Book Fair and Journalism Exhibition was held in Mexico City. This year the radio and motion

picture industries also joined in the event by holding their First Exhibition. Before a large audience which included government officials and the diplomatic corps, the Fair was officially opened by President Ávila Camacho. A crowd of approximately 50,000 persons visited the fair on the opening day.

Installed in about 150 stands especially constructed near the Monument to the Revolution, the 1944 Fair was estimated to be at least three times larger than either of the previous ones. Notable, too, was the fact that the keynote was definitely the cultural rather than the commercial aspects of the three participating industries. In fact, practically all the cultural organizations and institutions in the country joined in making it a success. Scores of book publishers, booksellers, and newspapers were represented, of course; ten Mexican states had their own stands; the National University and a number of government departments (Education, Public Health, the Interior, Communications and Public Works, and the Treasury) were represented; Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, and the Dominican Republic sent exhibits; and a further international touch was given by Soviet, French, English, Basque, and Catalonian participation.

On the six columns of a special pavilion of honor were inscribed the names of illustrious Mexican authors and intellectuals, from Netzahualcóyotl, the 15th century poet king of Texcoco, to contemporary writers.

The radio stands were sponsored by the British Broadcasting Corporation, RCA Victor, Philco, Westinghouse, and three of Mexico's principal radio stations. The BBC offered a series of short-wave programs from London; news from the battlefronts was broadcast from amplifiers; and Mexico on its part sent news broadcasts directly from the Fair to other parts of the world.

There was but one motion picture pavilion, a complete reproduction of a motion picture

studio. Its exhibits portrayed the development of the Mexican film industry since its inception, and the public was shown how motion pictures are produced. Another outstanding feature of the Fair was the specially constructed theater, with a capacity of 4,000 spectators, where a series of ballets, comedies, dramas, concerts of symphonic and popular music, and educational films and lectures was presented. With the exception of three special performances given for the benefit of flood victims, entrance to all presentations of the theater was free.

In addition to the fixed displays in the various government department stands, addresses were given from time to time by prominent persons on varied topics such as health, education, communications, and the history of sound, and six lectures were offered by Mexican authors on Mexican literature. A feature of the Treasury Department's exhibition was its collection of stamps, coins, and other currency.

Just prior to the opening of the Book Fair, announcement was made of the award of four literary prizes. The Ávila Camacho Prize, established recently by the Association of Mexican Booksellers and Publishers, was given to Enrique González Martínez for his historical work entitled *La Familia Carvajal*. In the National Literary Contest, the prize for the best novel was awarded to Francisco Rojas González for *La Negra Angustias*, a novel of the Mexican Revolution; Alfonso Toro won the history prize; and the poetry award was divided between Carlos Pellicer and Jorge González Durán.

The organizers of the Fair deemed it a real triumph. Hundreds of thousands of persons attended, and publishers and book dealers estimated their sales during the Fair at approximately 700,000 pesos, 40 percent more than the year before.

An interesting footnote to the Book Fair was published by *Tiempo*, a Mexican weekly

news magazine. In 1930, stated *Tiempo*, Mexico's book production totaled about 50,000 volumes; in 1943, the 116 publishing firms in the country had an output of 1,200,000 volumes.

New Schools for Uruguay

In August 1944 the Uruguayan Government authorized the expenditure of 10,000,000 pesos for city and rural school construction throughout the republic. Thirty-five percent of the money will be spent in the Department of Montevideo and the remainder will be distributed in fixed amounts for use in the other departments.

Methods of financing the appropriation are provided in the law. The Board of Primary and Normal School Education is authorized to borrow funds from the Mortgage Bank, the Insurance Bank, and other government institutions and the proceeds of special real estate taxes are earmarked to guarantee repayment. These taxes take two forms: (1) a so-called primary school tax on properties rented for residential, business, or industrial use in the city of Montevideo, figured on a sliding scale ranging from 20 centavos on monthly rents of 15 to 25 pesos up to 4 percent on rents above 1,000 pesos, payable monthly by the tenants, or, in the case of apartment houses, office buildings, etc., by the owners, who in turn will prorate the tax among their tenants; and (2) a .75 to 1 percent tax on the assessed valuation of all other urban and rural real property in the Republic, to be paid annually along with other real property taxes. Properties rented for less than 15 pesos a month, government and diplomatic properties, and buildings used by hospitals and charitable and philanthropic institutions are exempt from the school tax.

The law also prescribes certain regulations to govern the construction program. In the

interior of the republic and especially in the neighborhood of rural population centers, schools are to be constructed that can serve as boarding or semi-boarding schools for poor and destitute children. Land plots acquired for rural schools must be at least 12 acres in area, so that the cultivation of school gardens and experience in farm practices may be incorporated as part of the program. The actual building of the schools will be under the direction of the National Department of Public Works.

Agricultural clubs in Venezuela

Gratifying results are being obtained from the work of Venezuela's 5-V Agricultural Clubs, maintained by the Ministry of Agriculture for the education of the country's future farmers. The five V's stand for Valor (courage), Vigor (vigor), Verdad (truth), Vergüenza (modesty), and Venezuela. Some two hundred boys have entered upon their third year of work and study with the clubs, upon the completion of which they will receive certificates showing that they are ready to do their part in modernizing Venezuela's farming.

The clubs operate in conjunction with the Agricultural Demonstration Bureaus maintained in various agricultural centers throughout the country.

Besides offering technical instruction, many of the clubs have their own savings banks and agricultural cooperative organizations. These help to develop in the members a sense of responsibility toward their own possessions and toward society.

Members of a typical club in Maracay have harvested this year abundant crops of papayas and pineapples. They have raised broom corn which they will sell to broom manufacturers. They are cultivating *Crotalaria* to fertilize the stretches of ground which are still too sandy for crops. Each member

had his individual vegetable garden, and used its products in his own home.

The success of the clubs has been such that the Ministry of Agriculture is planning to install fourteen new ones.

Rural labor law in Argentina

A sweeping statute was promulgated in Argentina on October 13, 1944, governing the conditions of rural labor throughout the country. It applies to "those jobs which even though they may be of a commercial or industrial nature, use farm laborers or are carried out in rural surroundings." Harvest work is excepted from the provisions of the law.

The statute fixes a scale of minimum wages for farm labor in the various provinces and territories, making special provisions for the cases in which food or lodging, or both, are furnished by the employer.

The Sunday holiday is made obligatory by the law, except for work of the most urgent nature; and in the latter case the laborers must receive due compensatory leave. A minimum length of time is also fixed for meal hours during the working day.

Numerous provisions are made to insure that the workers receive adequate food and lodging under hygienic conditions.

When housing is furnished the laborer and his family, it is required that a parcel of land, suitable for raising a vegetable garden and keeping a few domestic animals, be furnished with it.

Laborers whose work keeps them outdoors must be provided by their employers with adequate clothing to protect them from the rain and mud; and dairy owners are responsible for the construction of sheds for milking.

It is the responsibility of the employers to furnish medical and pharmaceutical services for their laborers, and every establishment



TWO PRIZE-WINNERS

ABOVE: Nancy Glaser, a senior at Marygrove College, Detroit, received a parchment diploma awarded as first prize in an essay contest held by the society called Campana de la Libertad (Liberty Bell), of Montevideo. The subject of the contest was the timeliness of the philosophy of Artigas, the national hero of Uruguay. AT SIDE: Martha Bascope Vargas, a Bolivian girl who in 1942 won the Latin American prize for the best essay on *What Inter-American Cooperation Means to My Country* in the competition called "The Inter-American Forum," has completed her secondary schooling and arrived in the United States to enter Pennsylvania State College. Her award was a four-year college course.



must keep a medicine chest on hand for first aid.

Workers of more than a year's continued service are entitled to a week's annual vacation with pay.

After more than a year of service, a laborer cannot be discharged without due and legal cause.

If workers are not taken care of as the law provides, they may have recourse to authority. Penalties are fixed for infractions of the law, and the Labor and Welfare Department is given power to investigate cases and to enforce the provisions of the statute.

Twenty years of compulsory insurance in Chile

The Chilean Social Security Fund ended its first twenty years of life with a capital of more than 54 million pesos, and with a record of expansion indicated by the increase from 1,700 services rendered in its first year, 1924-1925, to 3,500,000 in 1943-1944, its twentieth. The Fund was established September 8, 1924, in the presidency of Arturo Alessandri Palma, who is now a member of the Chilean Senate, and who was present at some of the ceremonies that marked the anniversary date. Its main purpose continues to be the medical and financial protection of Chilean workers from sickness and disability and attendant losses; to this it has been adding various housing and school services for the benefit of the farm workers whose difficulties form so large a part of Chile's human problem.

Recent financial dangers growing out of rapidly rising prices have been averted by vigorous action on the part of the Fund's present Central Council. The Council has succeeded in greatly reducing the costs of administration, and has also reorganized the Fund's investments to put them on a sounder basis. Ten local councils have been set up,

to include representatives of the insured workmen and of their employers as well as of the Government and the Fund. With these councils, and with an administrative personnel newly placed upon a merit basis, the Fund enters confidently upon its third decade.

Registration of voters in Argentina

Provisions have been made by the Argentine government for the preparation of the Electoral Register, which is to appear in final form by October 31, 1945.

The law states that after the close of registration on October 31, 1944, the judges in charge of the Electoral Register shall make up provisional lists of voters, which must be printed and given as wide a distribution as possible by posting in public buildings and offices. Citizens who have registered and whose names do not appear on the list or are listed erroneously have four months during which to note such mistakes and to call for their correction. Where this cannot be done in person, form letters making the request for correction may be obtained at the post offices. The corrected lists of voters will constitute the Electoral Register, copies of which will be distributed to the electoral boards, the Ministry of the Interior and both houses of Congress, and to the political parties which make a written request for it.

Chile's first national Congress of Women

More than five hundred delegates, some of them coming from as far north as Iquique and others from Puerto Montt in the south, gathered in Santiago last October to attend the sessions of Chile's first national Congress of Women, which were held at the University of Chile. Committees were appointed

to deal with matters of education, with economics and social welfare, and with juridical and international affairs. For four days the Congress discussed such topics as low-cost housing, the status of social workers, the nationality of married women, the legal authority of parents, and the cost of living. The president of the Congress was Señora Amanda Pinto de Labarca, author, professor, and former Director General of Secondary Education.

In December the executive committee of the Congress waited on President Ríos to ask that Chilean women be given the right to vote.

Monument to Artigas in Caracas

At the end of the Avenida O'Higgins in Caracas there now stands an imposing monument to the great Uruguayan patriot Artigas. A gift of Uruguay to Venezuela in symbol of the friendship that binds the two nations, the statue of Artigas was cast in bronze contributed in small portions by Uruguayan school children. The pedestal of native marble and the plaza surrounding the statue were constructed by the Venezuelan Ministry of Public Works.

A special delegation from Uruguay, headed by Señor Martínez Thedy, Uruguayan ambassador to Argentina, came to Caracas to take part in the impressive ceremonies at the unveiling of the statue on September 23, 1944.

In a reciprocal gesture of cordiality, the Venezuelan government will present a statue of Bolívar to Uruguay.

Conferences and congresses in the Americas

The BULLETIN offers its readers another list of regional, national, and international conferences, congresses, and expositions held in

the various American Republics during 1944. (The last list was published in July 1944.) The range of subject matter of these many meetings and exhibits, some of them long established reunions and others assembled for the first time, indicates the increasing trend toward a broader exchange of ideas and a greater union of effort in many fields of activity.

ARGENTINA

- Rosario, July 28. Fourth Automotive Transportation Convention.
- Rosario, September 16. Congress of Rural Workers.
- Buenos Aires, October 5. Congress of Mutual Benefit Associations.
- Posadas, October 5. First National Tobacco Congress.
- Buenos Aires, October 8. Fourth National Eucharistic Congress.
- Buenos Aires, October 9. Sixteenth Argentine Congress of Surgery.
- Santa Fe, October 18. Ninth National Bakery Congress.
- Buenos Aires, October 20. Fifth National Congress of the Argentine Federation of Journalists.
- Buenos Aires, November 12. Argentine Industrial and Mining Congress.

BOLIVIA

- La Paz, April. Third National Congress of Law Faculties.

BRAZIL

- Rio de Janeiro, July 21. Second Brazilian Conference on Prison Methods.
- Rio de Janeiro, September 7. Tenth Brazilian Congress of Geography.

CHILE

- Concepción, March 17. National Convention of Collective Transportation.
- Santiago, April 11. Assembly of School Inspectors.
- Santiago, April 24. National Congress of Tanning Industries.
- Santiago, April 27. First National Congress of Delegates of the Primary School Sports Federation.

Santiago, August 12. First National Chess Congress.

Santiago, October 28. First National Women's Congress.

Santiago, October 29. Seventh General Convention of the Chilean Medical Association.

Concepción, December 6. Sixth Chilean Congress of Surgery.

COLOMBIA

Bogotá, May 20. Conference of Regional Administrators.

Bogotá, July 3. National Merchants Congress.

Bogotá, October 20. National Farmers Congress.

CUBA

Santa Clara, March 10. Second National Juridical Congress.

Habana, July 24. Fifth National Engineering Congress.

Trinidad, September 2. Third National History Congress.

Habana, October 2. First Conference on the Development of Cuban Economy.

Habana, October 5. Fourth National Congress of Master Farmers.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Santiago de los Caballeros, October 24. Second Congress of Dominican Municipalities.

ECUADOR

Quito, July 1. Second Catholic Workers Congress.

Quito, July 4. National Workers Congress.

Quito, September 18. Postal Congress.

EL SALVADOR

San Salvador, October 9. Second National Workers Congress.

HAITI

Port-au-Prince, September 25. Philosophy Congress.

MEXICO

Mexico City, February 15. Anti-Vice Congress.

Saltillo, April 23. First Congress on Normal School Education.

Guanajuato, May 24. Second Regional Mathematics Assembly.

Mexico City, July 1. Congress of the Confederation of Mexican Youth.

Mexico City, July 9. First National Council of the National Confederation of Peoples' Organizations.

Morelia, July 23. Fourth Brucellosis Congress.

Mexico City, July 31. First National Tuberculosis and Silicosis Congress.

Mexico City, October 23. Third National Congress of Librarians and First National Congress of Archivists.

Mexico City, November 19. Sixth National Assembly of Surgeons.

PARAGUAY

Concepción, May. First Regional Congress of the Labor and Development Commissions.

PERU

Trujillo, April 8. Sixteenth Peruvian Rotary Conference.

Lima, April 11. First Peruvian Medical Convention.

Huancayo, April 13. First National Congress of Lawyers.

URUGUAY

Montevideo, January 24. First National Congress of Retail Merchants.

Montevideo, March 16. National Medical Congress.

VENEZUELA

Caracas, July 17. First National Convention of Chambers of Commerce and Production.

Caracas, September. First National Congress of Venezuelan Youth.

Caracas, September 10. First Cotton Producers Conference.

Caracas, October 23. First National Assembly of Cooperatives.

INTERNATIONAL

Bridgetown, Barbados, B.W.I., March 21. First West Indian Conference.

Chicago, May 15. Conference of Rotary International for 1944.

Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, July 1. United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference.

Mexico City, July 31. Third Conference of the Inter-American Bar Association.

Rio de Janeiro, August 15. Second Pan Ameri-

can Consultation on Geography and Cartography.

Santiago and Viña del Mar, Chile, October 20. Third Latin American Congress on Plastic Surgery.

Chicago, November 1. International Civil Aviation Conference.

Rye, New York, November 10. International Business Conference on Postwar International Trade.

Santiago, Chile, November 22. Congress of the South American Confederation of Societies of Pediatricians.

Lima, Peru, December 3. Second Regional Inter-American Institute on Hospital Administration and Organization.

Caracas, December 14. Second Bolivarian Conference on Cooperative Studies.

Cali, Colombia, December 15. Second General Congress of the CTAL (Latin American Workers Confederation).

EXPOSITIONS

Caracas, Venezuela, February 28. Fifth Official Annual Salon of Venezuelan Art.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, May 6. 22d Poultry and Rabbit Fair.

Bogotá, Colombia, May 8. Seventh Book Fair.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, June 4. Exposition in commemoration of the June 4 revolution.

Cuzco, Peru, June 24. Agricultural, Livestock, and Industrial Fair.

Belo Horizonte, Brazil, July 1. Eleventh National Livestock Show.

Rosario, Argentina, August 5. 44th National Exhibition of Livestock, Industry, and Commerce.

La Paz, Bolivia, August 6. Industrial Exposition.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, August 19. 58th National Livestock Show of the Rural Society.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, August. Argentine Salon of Regional Art.

Santa Fe, Argentina, September 3. 38th National Dairy Cow Contest and Exposition of Livestock and Industry.

La Paz, Bolivia, September 15. Exposition of Children's Art.

Santiago, Chile, September 15. 23d Poultry Exhibition of the Chilean Poultry Growers Society.

Reconquista, Argentina, September 16. 10th National Exposition of Livestock, Agriculture, and Industrial and Farm Products.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, September 21. 34th National Salon of Fine Arts.

Santiago, Chile, October 10. Stock show of the National Agricultural Society.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, October 20. Eighth Spring Flower Exhibition.

Mexico City, October 31. Third Book Fair and Journalism Exhibition and First Motion Picture and Radio Exhibition.

San Jacinto, Federal District, Mexico, November 5. National Agricultural and Livestock Exposition.

Buenos Aires, Argentina, November 12. Mining and Industrial Exposition.

We see by the papers that—

- The *Chilean* Chamber of Deputies has voted to fly the flags of the other American nations over its building on the respective national holidays in token of friendship with the sister republics.
- *Venezuela* is helping to send the United Nations "to victory over a sea of oil" with a petroleum production estimated at 900,000 barrels a day.
- Pure silk prints from *Brazil* are being offered this spring by a New York department store at \$6.50 and \$8.50 a yard.
- *Guatemala* has abolished the system of compulsory work upon public roads; road service had brought serious interruption to agricultural production, besides imposing a heavy burden of labor on those who were too poor to substitute a money payment.
- The National Agricultural Production Service in *Haiti* was recently authorized by executive resolution to take all necessary steps to control and eradicate the bud rot that has gained a foothold in the cacao plantations of the country. Cacao occupies a prominent place in Haitian national economy and any measure to preserve the trees from damage is likewise of prime importance.

- Through Law No. 731, approved November 2, 1944, the Government of the *Dominican*

ican Republic initiated steps for the development and improvement of the nation's agricultural and livestock industries. The law authorized the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Labor, and official Chambers of Commerce, Agriculture, and Industry, to lend without interest agricultural tools and implements, and animals for work and for breeding, to provide seeds, and to facilitate other items necessary for improved farm activity.

- A National Chemurgy Council was recently established by presidential decree in the *Dominican Republic*. Its purpose is to study and to advise, from both the scientific and technical standpoints, on the industrialization of the products and by-products of the Dominican agricultural, livestock, and fishing industries. As an aid to the progress of its work, the new Council is given authority to request and obtain information from all official sources concerned with agriculture, stockraising, fishing, industry, trade, and statistics, as well as from official laboratories and teachers of agriculture and industrial chemistry.

- A 5-ton shipment of shark liver oil was recently made from *Venezuela*, the country's first exportation of that commodity. Exports of whole shark livers previously made were found to be unprofitable. Prices received for the shark liver oil were good, however, and indicated the possibility of a new and economically sound field of activity for the Venezuelan fishing industry.

- The Argentine Ministry of Public Works has announced the expropriation of 15,000 acres of land in the Esteban Echevarría section of Buenos Aires for the construction of the new civic airport. Selection of the site followed thorough study on the part of a committee appointed by the President and composed of the Ministers of War, Navy and Public Works. The sum of 30,000,000

pesos has been allotted for the costs of expropriation and construction.

- Election of 10 internationally known historians to honorary membership in the *American Historical Association* was announced at the 59th annual meeting of the Association last December. Only two such memberships have been awarded previously; the recipients were Benedetto Croce of Italy and James Bryce of Great Britain. Among the 10 new honorary members were a *Brazilian*, Affonso de Escagnolle Taunay, Director of the Paulista Museum, São Paulo, Brazil, and a *Chilean*, Domingo Amunátegui Solar, professor, historian, and publicist.

- Scientific and statistical, literary, artistic, and historical books and periodicals are provided for the teachers of Bogotá in the Domingo Faustino Sarmiento Teachers' Library, which was opened in the *Colombian* capital last September on the 56th anniversary of the death of the great teacher-president of Argentina. In tribute to the beliefs as well as to the name of Sarmiento, the library offers the teachers not only books on the technic of their work but a wide range of solid reading, to strengthen that foundation of thought on which any good teaching must rest. Open to all the teachers of the city, the library has been housed in a centrally located public school only a few blocks away from the Biblioteca Nacional.

- *Chile* has expressed the nation's regard for *Uruguay's* great writer José Enrique Rodó by erecting in Santiago a monument in his honor. The statue, a tall slender figure of Ariel triumphant, with the right arm raised high and pointing one finger toward the sky, is the work of the Chilean sculptor Tótila Albert, and stands in the Parque Gran Bretaña on the Avenida Providencia. For its dedication last October 12, Senator Dardo Regules, who was one of Rodó's disciples about 40 years ago, came from Uruguay to

Chile with the rank of Ambassador Extraordinary.

- A *Brazilian-Venezuelan* Cultural Institute was established in December 1944 at Rio de Janeiro.

- On the request of the mayor of *La Paz*, the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters of *Buenos Aires* has sent one of its officials to supervise the cataloguing of the Marshal Santa Cruz Library in the Bolivian city.

- *Guatemala's* constitution, which was adopted in 1879 and last amended in 1935, was revoked by special decree of the Revolutionary Junta late in November, 1944. The Legislative Assembly has been instructed to summon a constituent assembly to prepare a new constitution.

- Fifteen young *Haitian* doctors who, on completion of their two years of compulsory service in the nation's rural districts, recently announced their decision to continue the practice of their profession in the same rural areas, received an unexpected reward. Doctors are scarce in the country regions of Haiti, and the President, realizing what the continued service of these young men means to the population, ordered that they should continue to receive without interruption the government stipend which by law is paid to doctors during their two years of compulsory rural service.

- The first animated cartoon in colors made in an *Argentine* film studio was released in September 1944. It was produced under the auspices of Emelco for Industrias Químicas Argentinas "Duperial." The cartoonist and director was Señor José Burone Bruché. The subject of the film, which is reported to offer an instructive and entertaining five minutes, was the ravages of the leaf-cutter ant and how they could be prevented.

- The *Argentine* Ministry of Agriculture is intensifying its farm-home courses for girls

throughout the country. These short courses last three months and are given under the Extension Division of the Ministry. Girls are prepared for farm life by instruction in agriculture, stockraising, dressmaking, cooking, gardening, poultry raising, beekeeping, dairying, and home industries. Special classes are also given in child care, hygiene, and first aid.

- *Costa Rica's* Department of Labor and Social Welfare reached its first birthday in September 1944 with commendations from many of the country's large employers and from both of the Costa Rican federations of labor unions. During its first year the Department held some 25,000 consultations, settled nearly 4,000 disputes, and issued 3,500 warnings on working conditions and safety measures, besides making inspections and arranging compensation for overtime work and unemployment.

- In line with the Brazilian Government's general social welfare policy, the Central Railroad of *Brazil* is undertaking a large-scale housing project for the benefit of its employees in the lower wage groups. The program provides for two housing groups, one of two hundred houses and the other of eight hundred, and it also includes the construction of necessary schools, hospitals, motion picture theaters, playgrounds, and parks. The project will be financed by the Federal Savings Bank through a twenty-year loan of 15,000,000 cruzeiros, bearing interest at 8 percent, and the houses will rent for 100 to 250 cruzeiros a month.

- A Wage Council was recently established in *Paraguay* to study wages in trade and industry and to work for the solution of wage disputes and problems. The membership of the Council, which will function in connection with the National Department of Labor, includes representatives of the Government Departments of Labor, Industry and Devel-

opment, Commerce, Public Health, Agriculture, and the Treasury, and two representatives each of employers and employees in each industry and trade.

- It is hoped to provide curative and preventive medical and dental care for all students in *Ecuador* under a recently approved presidential decree. This new school health program covers students in public and private primary and secondary schools, institutions of higher learning, and specialized schools, and also includes free dental attention for pregnant women and pre-school children. The project will be financed by funds obtained from a .5 percent consular invoice fee and contributions of the students themselves, ranging from 1 sucre a year for primary school children under ten years of age to 10 sucres a year for university and private school students.

- *Argentine* scientists are engaged in a study of plants growing in their country which may yield satisfactory rubber. The government has created a Corporation for the Production of Vegetable Rubber, which will control all business in rubber-producing plants and their products. Using a credit of 3,500,000 pesos from the National Bank, it will operate directly or through private channels.

- 53 million pounds of coffee were given by the people of *Brazil* to the *United States* fighting forces as a token of understanding and cooperation.

- Eight barges for cargo traffic along the rivers of the Amazon region will be constructed at a sawmill and shipyard at Pucallpa, *Peru*, on the Ucayali river. These craft will be put into service by the Peruvian Amazon Corporation for the transport of petroleum and other products between the producing areas, Iquitos, and other river ports.

- Sponsored by the *Argentine* Ministry of Agriculture, a course of 78 lectures by experts in economics and export trade has been given to economic advisers and commercial attachés in the *Argentine* foreign service.

- *Colombia's* national economy will be greatly strengthened by exploitation of her iron resources. Reserves of rich ore in the Department of Boyacá are believed to be capable of providing for about 70 percent of the country's iron needs in the near future; these estimates are figured on the basis of surface deposits alone, and it seems likely that a further supply may be found at greater depth.

- A National Institute of Technology has been created in *Argentina* under the Ministry of Agriculture. Its purpose is to promote the scientific and industrial progress of the country by improving present methods, or discovering new ones, for processing the country's raw products. The Institute will work closely with private industry, even to financing, if necessary, private industrial research. It will guarantee the quality of industrial products and issue certificates of necessity for exports in certain cases. Commercial and industrial firms may become associate members of the Institute by paying annual fees.

- The city of Cali, *Colombia*, has bought from the Pacific Telephone Company the whole system of manually operated telephones now in use in the city. The plant and lines will be municipally owned and operated, and will be gradually replaced between now and the end of 1947 by a complete system of automatic telephones.

- The *Argentine* government has recently formed two mixed companies with capital subscribed by individuals and the government. One is an iron and steel foundry, including a rolling mill, which will be located on the Paraná river between Buenos

Aires and Rosario. It will produce 350,000 tons annually when it is completely finished. The second is a company which will produce synthetic rubber (thioprene) and chemicals used for explosives. It is to be known as the Atanor Compañía Nacional para la Industria Química, and will carry on some of the activities of the private company Atanor Industrias Químicas.

- Early in September 1944 international bus service was inaugurated between Rio Grande in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, *Brazil*, and the city of Montevideo, *Uruguay*.

- For the purpose of creating a body of native skilled labor, the *Brazilian* Government recently organized a National Technical School in Rio de Janeiro. The doors of the school were opened to students on October 7, 1944. Thorough courses in practically all trades, covering a four-year period, are offered.

- *Chile* has ratified a library agreement with *Argentina*. Each nation is to set aside a room in its National Library to be devoted to the books of the other, and each is to present to the other two thousand volumes not included in the existing collection.

- The Ministry of Justice of *Brazil* has opened its well-stocked library to the public. The fact that books may be lent to responsible persons for a two-week period represents an innovation.

- A governmental decree signed in *Honduras* creates a normal school for rural teachers. It will be called the Instituto Normal Rural, and its graduates will receive a special degree in rural primary education.

- The Maria Moors Cabot awards were conferred in 1944 on Carlos Mantilla Ortega, Editor of the *Comercio* of Quito, *Ecuador*; Jorge Pinto, Editor of *Diario Latino* of San Salvador, *El Salvador*, and Albert Victor McGeachy, Editor of the *Star and Herald*

of Panama City, *Panama*. In addition, a silver plaque was awarded to *Repertorio Americano*, of San José, *Costa Rica*, at the ceremonies held at Columbia University, New York.

- Edmundo Prati was the winner of the sculptural competition sponsored by the Government of *Uruguay* for a statue to General San Martín to be erected in Montevideo. The jury considered that his model, an equestrian figure of the General on a rectangular pedestal, was a faithful interpretation of the hero's character as well as a fine work of art.

The plan of the architects Román Fresnedo Siri and Mario Muccinelli for a building to house the Uruguayan School of Architecture and the National Museum of Fine Arts has been accepted. The structure will occupy a triangular plot and contain a large patio in which outdoor exhibitions can be held.

- A society called "Amigos de Puebla," which is headed by the well-known *Mexican* art authority, Manuel Toussaint, has been organized to preserve the colonial aspects of that city. It hopes to draw up a zoning plan so that the city may be extended in a form that will not conflict with its ancient beauty.

- The Musicians' Association of *Paraguay* opened its new quarters in Asunción last year with a concert at which a number of Paraguayan compositions were played by the Association's orchestra.

- Compulsory courses in Portuguese were inaugurated in Uruguayan secondary schools on June 10, 1944, the date chosen for the initiation of this new step in good-neighbor relations between *Uruguay* and *Brazil* being the anniversary of the death of the illustrious sixteenth-century Portuguese poet Camões. Similar compulsory courses in Spanish were instituted in Brazilian secondary schools some time ago.

• A recent law in the *Dominican Republic* authorized the erection along the Avenida Independencia in Ciudad Trujillo of monuments commemorating national heroes of the various American Republics. The first ones will honor Washington, Bolívar, San Martín, Tiradentes, Juárez, Santander, O'Higgins, and Martí. Designs for the monuments will be selected through competitions.

• A resolution passed by the government of *Venezuela* appropriated 150,000 bolívares to

be distributed among the workers of the Republic who have the most children. These funds are to be invested in the acquisition of small family properties, or, if inadequate for this purpose, are to be used as a beginning for this project. A widow with twenty children who lives in the State of Mérida was awarded the largest single amount of money,—1,110 bolívares.

• Dental and eye clinics have been opened in the headquarters of the Railway Workers' Union in *Buenos Aires*.

NECROLOGY

RICARDO JIMÉNEZ OREAMUNO. — Distinguished jurist, diplomat, statesman, three times President of Costa Rica. Born in 1859 at Cartago; his father was Jesús Jiménez, and his maternal grandfather Francisco María Oreamuno, both of whom were Presidents. He studied at the University of Santo Tomás and became a lawyer. In 1885 he filled his first important political office, that of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Mexico. In 1888, on the occasion of the Central American conferences in San José, the government of Costa Rica chose him as its delegate, a mission which he fulfilled with great ability. His political career was from then on a series of triumphs: several times cabinet portfolios were entrusted to him, including Foreign Relations, Treasury, and Education, in which he unfailingly showed his talent, ability, and patriotism. When he was barely 31 he filled the highest position in the judiciary, the presidency of the Supreme Court of Justice. In 1902 he held the posts of First Designate to the Presidency of the

Republic and of president of the Congress. Following his service in these positions he was elected for the first time President of the Republic for the term 1910-1914. He also was President for two other terms (1914-1918) and (1932-1936). In the course of his career he was also a member of the Congress during the years 1902-1906, 1906-1910, and 1922-1926, a position in which, as in others, he distinguished himself for his love of peace, his respect for democratic institutions, his tireless efforts in behalf of material and intellectual improvement, and his dignified handling of international relations.

At the time of his death, in San José, Costa Rica, January 4, 1945, he was a corresponding member of the Spanish Academy of Letters. He had been decorated by a number of foreign countries.

CARLOS CONCHA. — Eminent Peruvian jurist, professor, diplomat, and statesman. Born in Callao November 27, 1887. He

studied at the Colegio Nacional de Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe and the Universidad Mayor de San Marcos, of Lima, obtaining a law degree in 1914 and that of doctor of political and administrative sciences in 1917. It is to Dr. Concha's credit that he rose through his own efforts to occupy some of the positions of greatest importance in his country and to represent it with great ability abroad. His career began in 1911, when he became president of the University Center. The following year he acted as President of the Third Congress of American Students. From 1915 to 1918 he was secretary to the President of the Republic, Doctor José Pardo. Political reasons having obliged him to leave his country in 1919, he settled for some years in the United States. During his stay in this country he worked first with a banking house in New York. Shortly afterwards, his knowledge of Latin American history resulted in his appointment as professor at Yale University and later as professor of this subject and dean of the Spanish School at Middlebury College, where he accomplished a notable work. In 1930 he returned to Peru and the following year was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary in Bolivia, remaining there until 1934 when he returned to his country to be Minister of Foreign Affairs. In the two years in which he was for the first time at the head of the Cabinet his outstanding work left his name well established in the annals of history.

In July 1935 he went to Buenos Aires at the invitation of the Argentine government for the opening of the Chaco Peace Conference held to settle the conflict between Bolivia and Paraguay. In 1936 he was appointed Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Brazil, and while on this mission he acted as President of the Peruvian delegation to the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace which met at Buenos Aires. In 1937 he represented his

government with the rank of Ambassador in Chile until he was recalled to take over for a second time the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. In this high position he had the honor of being Chairman of the Peruvian delegation and President of the Eighth International Conference of American States which met at Lima December 9-27, 1938. In 1939 he left the Ministry and the following year was elected Senator for the Province of Callao. In 1942 he was sent by his government to the United States as Ambassador Extraordinary on Special Mission.

On hearing of the death of Dr. Concha, who died in Lima December 17, 1944, the Peruvian government decreed special honors for him, and at his funeral two ex-Presidents of the Republic were pall bearers. These were General Óscar R. Benavides and Dr. José Pardo, the latter having just returned to Peru after an absence of 25 years in France. In the course of his public career Dr. Concha was decorated by his country and by many foreign nations. Some of his works are: *El problema de la criminalidad infantil*; *El régimen local*; *La cuestión del Pacífico*; and *The Oldest University in America*.

RUFINO BLANCO FOMBONA.—Venezuelan diplomat, writer, and historian. Born in Caracas, June 17, 1874. At the age of 20 he was Consul of Venezuela and Peru in Philadelphia. Two years later, in 1896, he was attached to the Venezuelan legation at The Hague. From 1901 to 1904 he was Consul in Amsterdam, and the following year held the office of governor of the territory of Amazonas. In 1909 he was secretary of the Chamber of Deputies in Caracas. His opposition to the government of General Juan Vicente Gómez resulted in his imprisonment in 1909 and exile in 1910. He settled in Madrid, where he founded the publishing house América and in 1915 became editor of the Biblioteca Ayacucho. This published

many American works, some with an introduction by Blanco Fombona himself. In Navarre he served in high public positions during the years 1934-37, among them that of civil governor. In 1939 the new government of Venezuela named him Minister Plenipotentiary in Uruguay. His outstanding works include: *Cuentos de poeta*, 1900; *Cuentos americanos*, 1904; *El hombre de hierro*, 1907; *Letras y letrados de Hispano América*, 1908; *El hombre de oro*, 1915; *La máscara heroica*, 1923; *Motivos y letras de España*, 1930; *El secreto de la felicidad*, 1932; *El conquistador español del siglo XVI*, 1935; *El pensamiento vivo de Bolívar*, and many others. He was a member of the Academia de la Historia, of Cuba; the Instituto Histórico, of Brazil; and the Academia Española de la Historia. He died October 16, 1944, in Buenos Aires, where he had gone to have some of his books republished and to continue his literary work.

LUIS CASTILLO LEDÓN.—Eminent Mexican historian, statesman, journalist, and writer. Born in the town of Santiago Ixcuintla, in the state of Nayarit, January 17, 1879. From a very early age he devoted himself to journalism and contributed to several daily newspapers and reviews in Guadalajara and Mexico City. For some time he was secretary of the National Library, going from there to the National Museum of Archeology, History and Ethnology, of which he became director, and with which he remained connected almost all his life. In 1908 Justo Sierra, then Secretary of Public Instruction and Fine Arts, named Señor Castillo Ledón to retrace the footsteps of Hidalgo and gather information on the life of the great patriot. At the end of long years of work he finished the work entitled *Hidalgo: La vida del héroe*, for which he will be famous as a historian, because of its documentary wealth and keen discernment. In 1929 he was

elected governor of the state of Nayarit, an important position which he filled ably and honestly. At the expiration of his term of office he returned to the direction of the Museum; he was professor of the history of Mexico in the Escuela Nacional Preparatoria; he participated as Mexican delegate in important scientific congresses, among them the Second American Scientific Congress and the 19th International Congress of Americanists. At the time of his death he was a member of a number of learned societies. He was also one of the founders of the Ateneo de la Juventud and author of numerous historical and literary works. He died in Mexico City October 7, 1944.

RAMÓN S. CASTILLO.—Argentine professor, jurist and ex-President. Born in Catamarca on November 20, 1873, received his primary and secondary education there, and graduated from the National University of Buenos Aires in 1896 with the degree of Doctor of Jurisprudence. From 1907 to 1912 he was Assistant Professor of law in this University. In 1907 he was made Professor of Commercial Law and from 1915 to 1928 was a member of the Board of Directors of the Faculty of Law. He was also a delegate to the High University Council and a Dean of the Law Faculty (1923-1928). In 1910, the University of La Plata secured his services as acting professor of Commercial Law and from 1911 to 1922 he held a permanent professorship there in addition to his other duties. His juridical career included posts as Secretary of the Commercial Court (1896-1903); Criminal Judge of San Nicolás, Province of Buenos Aires (1903-1905); Commercial Judge of Buenos Aires (1907-1910); Justice of the Criminal Court of Appeals (1910-1913) and of the Commercial Court of Appeals (1913-1918). He began his political career in 1930 when he took over for the government the governor-

ship of the Province of Tucumán. From 1932-1935 he served as National Senator from Catamarca, and in 1936 he was appointed Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. Later in the same year he became Minister of the Interior and from 1938 to 1940 was Vice President of Argentina. In 1940, when President Roberto Ortiz resigned for reasons of ill health, Señor Castillo became Acting President and governed from April of 1941 until June 1943 when his administration was overthrown in a revolt headed by General Arturo Rawson. From then until his death he lived in retirement. Señor Castillo was at one time Vice President of the Argentine Committee for Pan American Commercial Arbitration (1938), and a member of the Spanish Academy. He held honorary doctor's degrees from the Universities of Heidelberg and Rio de Janeiro, and was the author of many articles on law and commerce. He died in Buenos Aires on October 12, 1944, at the age of 70 years.

ALEJANDRO CÓRDOVA.—Guatemalan editor and legislator. Born in Huehuetenango May 25, 1886. Educated at the Central National Institute for Boys and the National School of Telegraphy. Chief of editorial staff of *El Diario de Centro América*, 1920-1921. Founded *El Imparcial*, Guatemala's largest daily newspaper, in 1922, and continued to direct it until shortly before his death; such men as Porfirio Barba Jacob and Carlos Wyld Ospina were members of his editorial staff. Served in the National Legislative Assembly, assigned to the Legislative Committee, from 1934 until his death. Author of *Flores silvestres* (poetry) and *Espigas al viento* (prose). Died in Guatemala October 1, 1944.

ALBERTO ECHANDI MONTERO.—Costa Rican lawyer and statesman, who as Secretary of Foreign Relations in the cabinet of

former President Calderón Guardia had a large share in the negotiations which ended the century-old boundary dispute with Panama. He signed the Echandi Montero-Fernández Jaén treaty on May 1, 1941. When the completed boundary line was formally accepted by the two governments on September 18, 1944, Señor Echandi was too ill to take part in the ceremonies, but his personal contribution was recognized by a decree of Congress conferring upon him the title of *Benemérito de la Patria*. He had served in the cabinets of earlier presidents as Secretary of the Treasury and as Secretary of Development and Agriculture, and had helped to organize various municipal and welfare institutions in San José. As candidate for the presidency during a period of turmoil in 1924 he would countenance no act of force: "I shall not allow a single drop of Costa Rican blood to be shed to make me president." Died in San José at the age of 74 on September 29, 1944.

CARLOS L. LÓPEZ.—Panamanian jurist and public man. Entering upon a public career early in life, he served his community and country in many important posts, such as president of the Municipal Council of the capital, Attorney General of the nation, Deputy to the National Assembly, Chairman of the National Election Board, and Secretary of the Interior and Justice. In 1928 he was a delegate to the Inter-American Conference on Conciliation and Arbitration in Washington. He served on the commission that negotiated the General Treaty on the Panama Canal signed March 2, 1936, between the Governments of Panama and the United States. At the time of his death in Panama on November 20, 1944, he was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

PHILIP AINSWORTH MEANS.—Archaeologist, anthropologist, and historian. Born in Boston April 3, 1892; graduated from Har-

vard University with bachelor's degree in 1915 and master's degree in 1916. While still an undergraduate he took part in the Yale Peruvian Expedition of 1914-1915. His earliest independent studies were made as honorary collaborator of the United States National Museum from 1916 to 1918. From 1920 to 1921 he was director of the National Museum of Archaeology in Lima, and from 1921 to 1927 associate in anthropology at the Peabody Museum, Harvard University. He was recognized on both continents as an authority on the civilization of the Incas. Member of the Institute of Andean Research, the American Anthropological Association, the American Antiquarian Society, the Hakluyt Society of London, the National Academy of History of Quito, and the Archaeological Institute of Cuzco. Decorated with the Official Order of the Sun (Peru). Author of many books and papers on archaeological subjects, in English and in Spanish, including the following: *A History of the Spanish Conquest of Yucatan and of the Itzas* (1917); *A Survey of Ancient Peruvian Art* (1917); *La Civilización Precolombina de los Andes* (1919); *Aspectos Cronológicos de las Civilizaciones Andinas* (1921); *A Study of Ancient Andean Social Institutions* (1925); *Biblioteca Andina* (1928); *Ancient Civilizations of the Andes* (1931); *Fall of the Inca Empire* (1932); *A Study of Peruvian*

Textiles (1932); *The Spanish Main* (1935); *The Incas; Empire Builders of the Andes* (1938); *Tupak of the Incas* (1942). Died in Boston November 24, 1944.

WILLIAM WALLACE WHITE.—At its regular meeting on December 6, 1944, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union paid tribute to the memory of William Wallace White, a lawyer who was for many years Consul General of Paraguay in New York. Mr. White was born in that city in March 1862 and died there in November 1944. The following resolution was approved:

WHEREAS, The Hon. William Wallace White was for many years the Consul General of Paraguay in New York and on several occasions represented that Government on the Governing Board; and

WHEREAS, During his long career Mr. White manifested constant interest in the work of the Pan American Union and in the relations between the American Republics,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To record on the minutes of this meeting its sincere condolences on the death of the Hon. William Wallace White, Consul General of Paraguay in New York and on several occasions representative of Paraguay on the Governing Board.

2. To request the Director General to transmit this resolution to the Government of Paraguay and to the family of the deceased. The resolution was unanimously approved.

The BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION asks the indulgence of its readers when it arrives late. Delays are incident to wartime printing and transportation.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs

are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 120,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.



Pan American Day—April 14

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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO, PAN AMERICAN UNION





CHAPULTEPEC PARK, MEXICO CITY

On the edge of this park is Chapultepec Castle, where the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace met from February 21 to March 8. An account of the Conference will be given in the next issue.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 4



APRIL 1945

Americans

GERMÁN BERDIALES

We who came to life's beginnings
here within the western world,
born the heirs to freedom's birthright—
we wear one and twenty titles.

On the Río de la Plata—
Argentines and *Uruguayans*.
Facing toward the blue Pacific
from the sloping Andes—*Chileans*;
then *Peruvians* on their hilltops,
and, among the peaks, *Bolivians*
scarcely lower than the sky.

Where from hill and plain the rivers
flow together—*Paraguayans*.
Where the forest forms a background

broad and dense and deep—*Brazilians*.
On the line of the equator
Ecuadoreans, as they should be.
From Pacific to Atlantic
forming their own bridge—*Colombians*.
Venezuelans, where the shore line
meets the Caribbean's waves.
Out upon its foaming waters,
rocked in ocean's cradle—*Cubans*.
On Columbus' well-loved island—
Haitians, west, and east—*Dominicans*.
Looking out, from both directions,
on the man-made cut that severs
curves of oceans—*Panamanians*.
Costa Ricans on their rich coast.
Nicaraguans on their great lake.

Salvadoreans watching westward
while *Hondurans* look to eastward,
and to north, and touching shoulders
with both neighbors—*Guatemalans*.

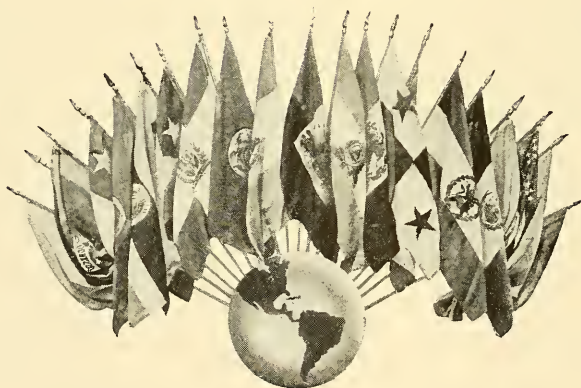
Mexicans still farther northward,
holding up their horn of plenty.
Then, beyond the Rio Grande,
states that join to make a nation,
forty-eight that form a unit
rightly named *United States*.

By these one and twenty titles,
each one different from the others,
we may mark our separate stations.

But we have one name that joins us,
one that binds us all together,
one that sheds a wider glory—
all are free *Americans*.

—Translated by CLARA CUTLER CHAPIN

Written in Spanish and published in La Prensa, Buenos Aires, December 10, 1944.



Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law

First Meeting

MANUEL S. CANYES

Chief, Juridical Division, Pan American Union

THE city of Habana had the honor of acting as host to the first inter-American meeting of 1945, which signalized the birth of a promising inter-American organization. On January 8, the Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law was officially launched at a solemn and impressive session held in the chamber of the House of Representatives in the capitol of Cuba, one of the most magnificent structures of its kind in the world.

Among those present at this formal gathering were the President of the Republic, Dr. Ramón Grau San Martín; the Vice-President of the Republic, Dr. Raúl de Cárdenas; the Secretary of State, Dr. Gustavo Cuervo Rubio; the Secretary of the Treasury, Dr. Manuel Fernández Supervielle; many other high officials of the Cuban Government; members of the diplomatic corps and many outstanding jurists from ten different countries of America. The Pan American Union was represented by the Chief of the Juridical Division.

In his opening address, the President of the Republic expressed his gratification that the "jurists of America are showing deep concern for the future and are working for a better world once victory is achieved." He added:

If the gigantic effort of the United Nations is to realize its objectives, if the death of thousands

of unknown heroes—fallen and yet to fall on blood-drenched fields—is to have some higher meaning, . . . it is imperative that the present war lead us definitely to substitute the "state of law and order" for the "state of force," so that the principle of conquest shall give way to that of mutual respect among all nations . . .

This building of tomorrow must be the work of statesmen and jurists, the purest crystallization of law, and towards that end Cuba takes deep satisfaction in giving cordial welcome to all those who have reached our shores to take part in the first session of the Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law, which is being inaugurated today, and in greeting with pleasure all those who are prepared to take part in its tasks, and generously to pledge their support, because their efforts will be one more achievement of the highest excellence in the great work of world organization. . . . The role of the Academy will be of great importance, especially in our continent where it will help to strengthen the spirit of inter-American solidarity.

Following the speech of the President of Cuba, Dr. Gustavo Cuervo Rubio delivered the inaugural address, to which a reply was made on behalf of the foreign delegates by George Maurice Morris, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Inter-American Bar Association.

Dr. Cuervo Rubio declared:

No work could be more practical and promising in leading to the success that day by day draws nearer than that undertaken by this Academy of jurists.

The mutual knowledge of the laws and juridi-

cal doctrines of the different countries, and the unification, as far as possible, of legislation, customs, cases and practices of law, are the indispensable foundation of the edifice we dream of raising—an edifice under whose protecting roof the men and nations of America may be sheltered and brought together. Perhaps, some day, the people of the earth, beholding without distrust or fear the disunity and struggles of the past as a mythical legend forever vanished, will contemplate serenely a future in which the highest interests and aspirations of humanity will be united to endure for the sake of the common man.

This brilliant and historic inaugural session marked the culmination of many years of effort on the part of outstanding jurists of the continent, prominent among whom are the late Dr. James Brown Scott, long associated with the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante, Cuba's most distinguished jurist and a judge of the World Court, and James Oliver Murdock, a leader in the development and teaching of international law.

Substantial credit for the establishment of the Academy in America is due to the Inter-American Bar Association. The Academy might be called an offspring of the latter, since its organization was initiated by a resolution adopted at the First Conference of the Inter-American Bar Association held at Habana in the spring of 1941.

For the purpose of bringing the Academy into existence, in accordance with the terms of the resolution, an Organizing Committee was appointed composed of Dr. Víctor A. Belaúnde of Peru, Dr. Frederic R. Coudert of the United States, Dr. Víctor M. Lascano of Argentina, Dr. Haroldo Valladão of Brazil, and Drs. Manuel Fernández Supervielle, Ernesto Dihigo and Juan Clemente Zamora of Cuba. Dr. Dihigo, Dean of the Faculty of Law of the University of Habana, was named chairman; Dr. Juan Clemente Zamora, a professor in the same University, secretary; and Dr. Manuel Fernández Super-

viele, first president of the Inter-American Bar Association, treasurer.

Thanks to the splendid work of this Organizing Committee and to the generosity of the Cuban Government, which in addition to giving its official recognition also provided a special fund to make the first meeting of the Academy possible, the project became a reality.

The purposes of the Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law, as defined in its statutes, are as follows:

1. To organize each year in Habana special courses of comparative and international law, especially for American students, to be taught by professors of the different American countries.
2. To organize lectures and research or seminar courses in which the theory, practice, legislation, and jurisprudence of American law will be studied, said courses and lectures to be in charge of the most competent persons of the several American States.
3. To publish, whenever possible and with the consent of the authors, in the form of books or pamphlets, the courses and lectures which may be given at the Academy, as well as research and seminar studies.
4. To organize, whenever convenient, scientific meetings for the consideration and discussion of subjects of special interest in American international or comparative law.
5. To collaborate with other institutions of a similar kind for the better fulfillment of its objectives.

As may be observed the Academy has well-defined objectives. It is in a position to make unique and constructive contributions to the study and development of comparative and international law.

The management and administration of the Academy is in charge of a technical Council (Curatorium), an Administrative Council, a Director, and a Treasurer.

The Curatorium is composed of representatives of well-known inter-American organizations, headed by the Pan American Union. This Technical Council met twice



THE ORGANIZING COMMITTEE OF THE ACADEMY WITH THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
AND THE COUNCIL OF THE INTER-AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION

Seated from left to right: Eduardo Theiler, James O. Murdock, Ernesto Dihigo, George Maurice Morris, Juan C. Zamora, Miguel S. Macedo, George A. Finch, and Camilo de Brigard Silva; standing: Enrique Dolz, Natalio Chediak, Harold E. Montamat, John Muccio, Augustín García López, Alberto Blanco, John J. Meng, Dantès Bellegarde, and Manuel Canyes.

during the first sessions of the Academy and at the first meeting elected George A. Finch, Director of the Division of International Law and Secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, as president of the Academy and of the Curatorium. Dr. Ernesto Dihigo was elected Director of the Academy, Dr. Juan Clemente Zamora, Secretary General of the Academy and Secretary of the Curatorium, and Dr. Manuel Fernández Supervielle, Treasurer.

At the first meeting of the Curatorium it was resolved to place a picture of Dr. James Brown Scott at the headquarters of the Academy, in the new home of the Habana Bar Association. It was also decided to elect Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante Honorary President of the Academy and to confirm this appointment by delivering to him at the closing session a scroll signed by

members of the Curatorium, as well as by professors and students attending the First Meeting of the Academy.

The statutes of the Academy provided for the appointment by the Curatorium of thirty additional life-members. The Curatorium, at its second meeting, agreed to modify this provision and change the life-membership to elective membership for definite periods in order to permit greater rotation in this group.

For the present, the Curatorium decided to appoint only fifteen elective members, to serve for the periods designated, as follows:

For a six-year period:

James Oliver Murdock (United States)
Haroldo Valladão (Brazil)
Ricardo J. Alfaro (Panama)
Manuel Fernández Supervielle (Cuba)
Juan Buero (Uruguay)

For a four-year period:

Frederic Coudert (United States)
 José Matos (Guatemala)
 Carlos Sánchez Mejorada (Mexico)
 Héctor David Castro (El Salvador)
 Camilo de Brigard Silva (Colombia)

For a two-year period:

Víctor A. Belaúnde (Peru)
 Luis Anderson (Costa Rica)
 Víctor M. Lascano (Argentina)
 J. Blanco Uztáriz (Venezuela)
 Percy E. Corbett (Canada)

From Tuesday, January 9, the day following the inaugural session, until Saturday, January 13, the Academy carried out a well-planned and constructive program of work. In the morning and early afternoon a series of monographic lecture courses was offered on the following subjects:

1. *Capacity to contract in comparative law* (in Spanish), by Dr. Alberto Blanco, Professor of Civil Law at the University of Habana, and Dean of the Bar Association of Habana.

2. *Organization of an international system of Courts* (in English), by Dr. James Oliver Muddock, Professor of Comparative and International Law at The George Washington University.

3. *The agreement to contract in American law* (in Spanish), by Licenciado Agustín García López, Professor of Civil Law at the National University of Mexico, and President of the Institute of Comparative Law of the same University.

4. *International air law* (in Spanish), by Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante, Professor of International Law at the University of Habana, and Judge of the World Court.

5. *Development of international private law in American legislation* (in Portuguese), by Haroldo Valladão, Professor of International Law at the University of Rio de Janeiro, and member of the Executive Committee of the Inter-American Bar Association.

Late in the afternoon, separate round table discussions were held on public law and private law. In the first, the following subjects were discussed:

Supremacy of public international law over public internal law.

Organization of the Council of the League of Nations.

International police and sanctions.

In the round table on private law the subjects discussed were as follows:

Methods in the teaching of comparative law.

Fundamental principles for a uniform negotiable instruments law on the following topics:

a) Efficacy of the instrument *per se*.

b) Formal requirement of bills of exchange.

c) Rules on protest of bills of exchange.

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At each session of the round tables a speaker, previously appointed, introduced the subject and submitted a draft conclusion, and then both the subject and the conclusion were opened to discussion by those present.

The closing session was held in the auditorium of the University of Habana. It was presided over by the Vice-Rector of the University, Dr. Roberto Agramonte. Dr. Manuel Fernández Supervielle, Secretary of the Treasury of Cuba, delivered the main address. His brilliant remarks were enthusiastically applauded.

Immediately following the remarks of Dr. Fernández Supervielle, the first President of the Academy, George A. Finch, made the formal presentation of the scroll (mentioned above) to Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante, attesting his designation as the Honorary President of the Academy. This was the most impressive act of the closing session, and Mr. Finch paid eloquent tribute to the outstanding Cuban jurist.

Following this ceremony, Dr. Dantès Bellegarde, of Haiti, delivered a stirring address on behalf of the delegates to the Academy, and Dr. Camilo de Brigard Silva, of Colombia, spoke in equally inspiring terms on behalf of the Executive Com-

mittee of the Inter-American Bar Association.

With this formal session, the first meeting of the Academy was brought to a conclusion. This meeting, in spite of war conditions, was highly successful and constructive from many points of view. It was successful because of the spirit and quality both of the jurists who lectured and of those who attended the academic courses and round tables, because of the hospitality and wholehearted support given by the Cuban Government, and because of the competence and

initiative of those who arranged and directed the sessions.

The Academy is now planning for subsequent annual meetings. Future sessions will extend over longer periods. All those who were present and witnessed the birth of this, the youngest of the inter-American organizations, are highly enthusiastic as to the important role the Academy will play in the field of comparative and international law, and hold high hopes for its ever-increasing development and usefulness.

American Figures Past and Present

III. Dona Jeronyma Mesquita, of Brazil

IGNEZ BARRETO CORREIA D'ARAUJO

TO ILLUSTRATE the theory of the influence of environment on human beings, Fénelon, the great French prelate, author, and educator, says that some regions favor the development of talents just as Provence grows sweeter figs and grapes than Normandy. . . . Indeed, the unquestionable moral and physical influences of environment have been mentioned by sages and philosophers, by scientists and poets, since the beginning of time. One's climate, sky, landscape, and religious, political, and social surroundings are to a great extent, they say, the builders of personality.

These considerations are apt to come to the mind of anyone who intends to write biography, even a mere sketch. They seem so evident that they appear before us as a frame for our thoughts and as a guide to our conclusions, though in many cases we have to consider the very special gifts with

which God endows the creatures whom He predestines to accomplish outstanding deeds in this world.

Dona Jeronyma Mesquita, the foremost woman in social service in Brazil, is one of these inspired creatures. Although she herself is a distinctive personality, she also reflects the spirit of generations, their cultural traditions, and her land itself.

Born in Minas Gerais, she belongs to one of the aristocratic families of that state. Her father was the Baron of Bonfim, great-grandson of the Marquis of Bonfim, one of the most representative of the nobility created in Brazil by D. Pedro II. This emperor conferred titles ranking up to the marquise on experienced statesmen, judges, military men, scholars, and rich landowners, in recognition of their loyal services, devotion, or marked ability. Very few business men were selected for this honor; among them was

the Marquis of Bonfim, who not only was a rich proprietor of coffee plantations, but also mined and traded in diamonds. His title was taken from the name of his estate—a procedure typical of Brazilian nobility.

Dona Jeronyma was born and reared on the plantation in central Brazil inherited from her great-grandfather and managed by her father. She lived the refined life of a *jeune fille* common to girls brought up on that sort of feudal fief, similar to the life on sugar plantations in northern Brazil. In these great estates lies the foundation of Brazilian economic history.

Everything was close to the estate of Bonfim, in reality or in spirit: the resplendent twin-peaked mountain indicative of rich mines, a gigantic milestone set by Nature along the road of the gold-seekers who disclosed the Brazilian El Dorado; gold in the bed of rivers, in the bottom of valleys, veining the flanks of mountains, sparkling in the sun, mixed with iron ore—the black gold that gave its name to the city of Ouro Preto; emeralds, dreamed of by pioneers, and diamonds gathered as profusely as simple pebbles from bountiful rivers; and over all the deep religious belief cherished through almost two centuries, from the earliest times when the discovery of precious metals and gems caused men to settle first in camps, then in hamlets, in villages, and in towns, around the mines and the churches standing today all over Minas Gerais as a sacred evidence of the thankfulness of the Christians who found in those regions treasures Croesus might have envied. São João d'El-Rei, Nossa Senhora do Pilar, Nossa Senhora do Carmo, Nossa Senhora da Piedade, Santo Antônio, São Sebastião, Santa Barbara, and many, many other places and churches named after saints and the Holy Virgin bear witness to that deep belief. Dona Jeronyma had no need to read books about the history and religion of her own wonderland. She was



Courtesy of the author

DONA JERONYMA MESQUITA

part of it. The legends and folk tales of the Indians and negroes were told to her by her black mammy, one of the faithful "vassals" whose devotion was the foundation of this economy.

The mansion-house, where the master used to rule over hundreds of slaves, was her own home; it had furniture of hand-carved jacaranda, the famous Brazilian hardwood, china from the Orient, heavy silverware, genuine damask, linen woven from imported flax on domestic looms, beautiful pictures from Italy, and clothes styled in Paris. Everything was there, near her, around her. Great musicians, poets, and writers, prominent politicians, were guests at the estate. Her mother, also of noble descent, was educated in a famous college, the first founded by nuns in Mariana, known as the City of Gold; she was—as she still is today—the most charming of hostesses.

According to the custom of those days Jeronyma had a governess at home and also went to school in the city, returning to the plantation in vacation time. She studied in Rio de Janeiro, and perhaps fate guided her to the Colégio Progresso, a college directed by an American woman, Miss Leslie Hentz, whose beauty and elegance deeply impressed her students. The young heiress, living an aristocratic life transplanted from Europe to the interior of Brazil, needed American influence to give balance to the training for her future. While in school she stayed at the home of her grandfather, the Count of Mesquita, a leader in the coffee business, who had been a director of the Bank of Brazil at the age of twenty-five.

She was married . . . and divorced at the age of nineteen! Her background and the courage inherited from her ancestors, those ladies of the latifundia whose somewhat matriarchal attitude contributed so markedly to the consolidation of noble Brazilian families and to the steady transformation of wild regions into progressive nuclei of civilization, helped her to overcome the difficulties. With her little boy she went to Europe. Who in Brazil, prior to 1919, would admit the idea of a lady travelling by herself, going overseas, and having just her little boy as a chap-eron or guardian? For this reason she was called "the American lady."

Anyone who has the privilege of knowing Dona Jeronyma personally, anyone who considers the great achievements she was able to bring to pass in a milieu against which she sometimes had to struggle in her serene, smiling, but persistent way, will perceive that she did not come into this world just to live the happy life of a housewife. History everywhere, and in every time, points to women who were builders of civilization through their silent heroism and through their constructive work that strengthens society.

For fifteen years, she visited England, Germany, Hungary, France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Switzerland, the country where her boy went to school. The peaceful atmosphere of ever-neutral Switzerland, the birthplace of the Red Cross, where humanitarian work has expanded most effectively, held the attention of the lady who later was to be in her own country a consoler of the underprivileged and distressed.

The memory of her teacher at the Colégio Progresso had not, however, vanished from her mind. Dona Jeronyma came to the United States; what better field for the furthering of the observations made in the country of the Red Cross than the country where great philanthropic organizations such as the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Institution exist! She sent her son to Dean Academy, a coeducational institution in Massachusetts—which surprised her Brazilian friends—and to Dartmouth College.

The boy grew up and married an American girl from Lynn, Massachusetts. Now he lies forever in the soil of the United States.

The education of Dona Jeronyma's son did not prevent her from developing her plans and ideas. When the proper time came, she returned to Brazil and started the series of accomplishments that threw light on numerous problems and resulted in welfare and happiness for many.

The atmosphere of the mansion-house of Minas Gerais was transferred to her family's home in Rio de Janeiro, where the furniture and all accessories revived the life of the nineteenth century. With her mother she kept open house for presidents of republics, diplomats, congressmen, high government officials, and prelates. Between a cup of tea and a piece of music, steps were taken for the founding of a new institution. Thus the Pro-Matre, a maternity home, was founded under her inspiration and support, by her dear friend Dona Stella Duval and the

learned obstetrician Dr. Fernando Magalhães; Dona Jeronyma only accepted the position of treasurer, which she has kept for twenty years.

While in Europe she became enthusiastic about Baden-Powell's work, and realized how helpful the Scouts' activities would be for the development of Brazil. Pamphlets, pictures, articles were sent to Rio de Janeiro, where they impressed the great Brazilian poet Olavo Bilac, to whom the Brazilian Boy Scout organization is deeply indebted. Back in her country, Dona Jeronyma started the Girl Scout movement, and at Stella Duval's home she met Prof. Ignacio Amaral, idealist and scholar, and Olavo Bilac. She was introduced to the latter by another eminent poet, Leal de Souza. The gathering turned into a meeting from which stemmed the wonderful work of the two branches of Scouts all over the country. At the home of Lady Lynch, the house which is today the residence of the American Ambassador, the first meeting of the Girl Scouts' organization was held. During the meeting a letter from Baden-Powell was read. Girl Scouting became a nation-wide project, an entirely volunteer organization. Like a mother who never declares a preference for any of her children, Dona Jeronyma does not say so, but we have no doubt that the Girl Scout organization is her favorite achievement. She even consented once to be its president and, overcoming her excessive modesty, she now holds the honorary title of *Chefe Fundadora*.¹

The National Crusade against Tuberculosis, an institution that works with the government, has always counted upon Dona Jeronyma's leadership in campaigns, drives, and so forth, to raise funds and to form committees to take up important measures with the top officials of the government. But her devotion to this institution has not been

limited to her position of leadership. A hospital in the city of Petropolis was recently built on the romance of a diamond. A valuable collection of colored diamonds was left by her great-grandfather to his descendants. The rose diamond was supposed to belong to Dona Jeronyma. But when she inherited the gem, she said—with the same nonchalance with which one of her countrymen from Minas Gerais, not knowing the value of the sparkling pebbles found in the river near by, used diamonds as counters in backgammon—"Why not sell this stone and spend the money for some useful purpose?" So the diamond was sold, and the ground bought for the Preventorium where hundreds of children now receive care to ward off the terrible disease.

The Federation for the Advancement of Women, established by the Brazilian feminist leader, Dr. Bertha Lutz, found in Dona Jeronyma its most ardent supporter. As an active public relations officer, she imprinted on the work of the organization, conferences, congresses, and other gatherings the prestige of her own respected personality.

To the Temperance Union, of which she is the first and only president, the Social Work Service, the Brazilian Education Association, in the council of which her word is always an inspiration, and the Brazil-United States Institute, on the board of which she is a prominent member, she devotes her time and her energies. Present at all the monthly luncheons of the Brazil-United States Institute, she finds the practice of the Good Neighbor Policy easy, for she has been engaged in it for a long time! The Honorable Edwin Morgan, for many years the American Ambassador to Brazil, was a frequent guest at the family's palace, to which prominent Americans of the whole continent had access. There difficult problems concerning the cooperation of the Rockefeller Foundation were solved and the establishment of

¹ See *The Bandeirantes' Silver Jubilee*, by Emily N. Freeman, BULLETIN, December 1944.

the Escola Ana Neri, the first Brazilian school of nursing, was decided upon.

In this rapid biographical sketch only the most important of Dona Jeronyma's many undertakings have been mentioned. To enumerate them all would be a long and difficult task. There are many independent activities in which Dona Jeronyma participates or to which she lends her name to help them reach their goals.

Unselfish and simple, sympathetic and understanding, she is honest in her feelings and beliefs, actions and thoughts. A Catholic, she is a Lady of Charity and belongs to the Third Order of Saint Francis.

While Dona Jeronyma is a great music lover, she says that her hobby is to talk, to exchange ideas, and to deal with people. Her liking of people was clearly illustrated

when we asked her what the deepest impression of her life was. She replied, "It was the day when my father, before the proclamation of the abolition law on May 13, 1888, emancipated all the slaves on his plantation." She was then a very young girl, a mere child. Nevertheless this was the overwhelming impression of her lifetime, after knowing many countries and civilizations all over the world, after having met great personages and other famous people, after all her varied experiences.

The reason for that lasting impression was her innate generosity, that bears comparison with the rich natural resources of her birthplace, for they are both at the service of others.

She is indeed a bountiful lady from a bounteous land.





Courtesy National Railways of Mexico

Guanajuato and its Storied Streets

JOSÉ LASO DE LOS HEROS

MUCH has been written on the city of Guanajuato. The following simple notes are for the tourist who may visit the old and interesting "Real de Minas de Santa Fé de Guanaxuato,"¹ a beautiful colonial town full of local color and rich in legend and tradition, where neither the appearance nor the atmosphere of its tranquil narrow streets has been marred by skyscrapers or other modern urban constructions.

The name Guanajuato, a corruption of the word "Quanaxhuato," the name given by the Tarascan tribes to the primitive village founded by the Otomis, means Hill of the Frogs.

Translated from Mapa, Mexico, June 1944.

¹ *Mining Town of Santa Fé de Guanaxuato.*

Nuño Beltrán de Guzmán was the first Spanish conqueror of Guanajuato, going there in 1528 and making it henceforward subject to the Kingdom of Castille.

About 1546 the first Viceroy of Mexico, Don Antonio de Mendoza, as a reward for services rendered during the Conquest, granted to Don Rodrigo Vázquez the site of the present city, a place which had been an overgrown, uninhabited hill since the insurrection of the Chichimecs.

The city of Guanajuato, which rises on deposits of silver, preserves splendid reminders of its past grandeur, not only as a mining center but also as the scene of glorious pages in the epic of 1810. We will cite only one of the outstanding historical events of the movement for Independence:

the capture of the Alhóndiga (Public Granary) of Granaditas on September 28, 1810, by forces under the command of the priest Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, due in large part to the heroism and fearlessness of a miner nicknamed "El Pípila"² who, with a stone slab on his back for protection and a flaming torch in his right hand, reached the door of the Alhóndiga and set it on fire, thus permitting the entrance of the insurgent army. The heads of the insurgent heroes Hidalgo, Allende, Aldama, and Jiménez, later captured and executed at Chihuahua, were brought to Guanajuato and hung at the four corners of the Alhóndiga. There they remained until 1821, when they were transferred to the hermitage of San Sebastián.

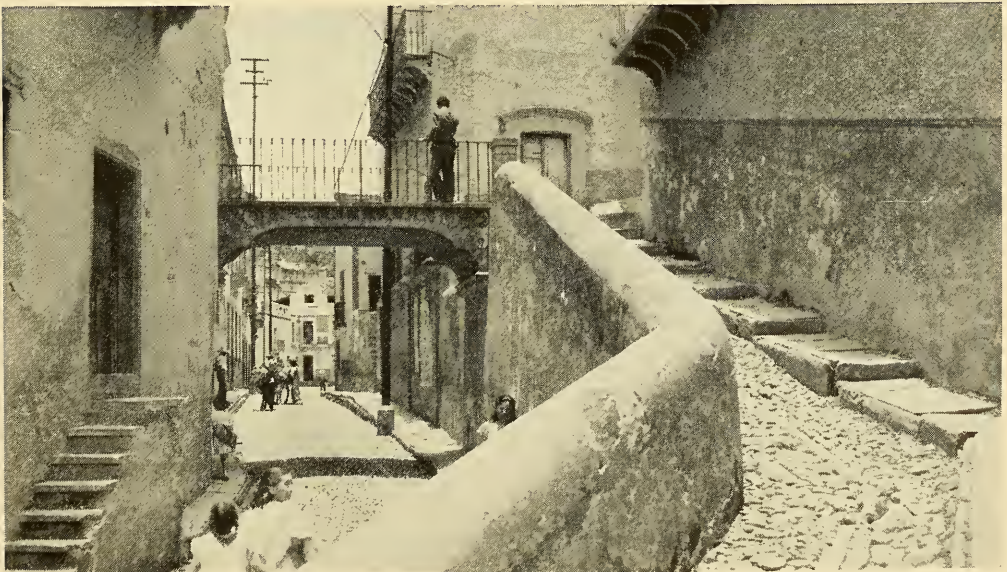
In 1550 the first vein of the renowned and immensely rich mine of San Juan de Rayas was discovered by a muleteer, for whom the mine was named. In 1554 the Spaniards founded the present city of Guanajuato. Army encampments were im-

² *Turkey.*

mediately established for the defense of the population, which was constantly threatened by rebellious tribes of Indians.

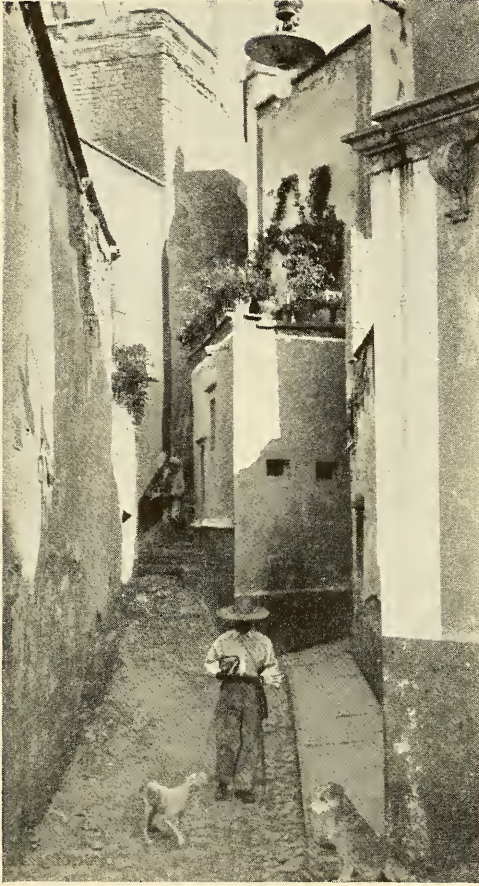
Guanajuato early became famous throughout the world for its enormous silver production. One needs only to recall its mines of San Juan de Rayas, Cata, Mellado, and La Valenciana, whose fabulous deposits enabled their original owners, the Marquises of San Juan de Rayas and the Counts of La Valenciana, to accumulate vast riches and made possible the construction of that gem of Mexican colonial art, the church of La Valenciana, with its Churrigueresque filigree.

From the commanding position of the gigantic statue of El Pípila on the terraces of San Miguel Hill the view of the city of Guanajuato bathed in the radiant light of the sun is a delight to the observer. He is dazzled by the brilliancy of the wide panorama before him and amazed at that mass of small white houses, buildings, and churches, which looks extremely like a stage setting. It seems as if it would be impossible to draw a plan of the city, with



Courtesy National Railways of Mexico

A PICTURESQUE STREET IN GUANAJUATO



Courtesy National Railways of Mexico

STREET OF THE KISS

Typical of Guanajuato's narrow, winding streets, is this charming byway with its romantic name.

its maze of narrow, twisting streets; it is as if they had purposely been made narrow and labyrinthine so as to be ready for prolonged hand to hand struggles against any who tried to take possession of the rich city of Santa Fe de Guanajuato.

In front of and below the spectator, portraying three periods in the evolution of the city, are three notable buildings. The first is the church of San Diego, dating from 1673, with its beautiful Churrigueresque façade and its two interesting chapels. This represents the first phase in the history of

the city, the period of the missions and Christianization. Almost adjoining it are the proud ruins of the old Mint, where the coveted *pesos fuertes*, which had such wide popularity throughout the world, especially in China and in India, were minted in surprisingly large amounts. This represents the second phase of the city's existence, the period of its mining development, and the wealth which this brought with it over a long period of years. And finally, there is the magnificent although somewhat battered Teatro Juárez, decorated in an elaborate style and surmounted by statues, which symbolizes the culture, the refinement, and the well-being that the city and its inhabitants achieved from their steadfastness in working the inexhaustible mines and which they enjoyed for many years, until many diverse factors started a decline.

A little to the left of the scene stands the large parish church, with its simple but elegant plateresque façade and its two towers. Somewhat farther back is the Jesuit Church of rose-colored stone, begun in 1744 and dedicated in November 1765. It has a spacious nave and side aisles, and three portals in a very florid and ornamental baroque. Its tall and graceful dome rises on two tiers of arches. Before the Purísima Concepción comes the State School, where the famous historian and illustrious statesman Don Lucas Alamán studied, and where at present there is a Museum of Natural History with well classified specimens, many of them rare.

In the background of the view is the charming sanctuary of Guadalupe, a church with two towers, and a façade in pure Mexican plateresque. A little farther back and to the left are the churches of the rich mines of Mellado and Cata; the former, partially in ruins, still shows its ribbed dome and its attractive façade. The latter boasts a portal of admirable workmanship

but its small tower does not harmonize with the massive structure that supports it.

Near these churches rise like a bulwark the high walls, reinforced with a series of buttresses, that surround the mine of San Juan de Rayas. This mine won universal fame because it was here that the use of shafts was introduced. This idea was the invention of the mine owner, Don José de Sardaneta y Legaspi, Marquis of San Juan de Rayas. He was also the one who, to commemorate the coronation of King Charles IV in 1790, minted silver medals bearing the effigy of the sovereign, which he threw in large quantities to the people of Guanajuato during the yearly celebrations that the city held in honor of the king. The use of gunpowder for blasting purposes

instead of the old system of fires was also introduced by him.

To the right, in the distance, are the delightful groves surrounding the reservoirs of La Olla and San Renovato. Farther in the distance is the majestic hill of La Bufa with its high cliffs.

To the north rises the imposing church of San Cayetano, built of rose-colored stone. Its façade is one of the most harmonious and refined examples of the Churrigueresque style. The church was erected through the munificence and piety of the Counts of La Valenciana, owners of the world-famous mine of the same name, which in addition to being one of the deepest in existence, has also been one of the largest silver-producing mines in the world.

The high altar in Churrigueresque style gives one the impression of looking at a gigantic piece of gold filigree which, although delicate and fine, is imposing and of great dignity. It is perhaps one of the most splendid altars in this style. Dr. Atl, in his magnificent book *Las Iglesias de México*, writes as follows concerning this edifice:

The church is not complete, but the finished parts have a refinement unequalled in other Mexican examples of this style. The façade, the lines of which are extremely elegant, is worked with the technique of a jeweler, as if a Benvenuto Cellini had put all his feeling and all his skill into engraving a huge metal plaque. There is evident in this beautiful façade the desire to attain the limit of refinement. It was indeed attained here and was likewise achieved in the main altar of this church, a piece of work imposing because of its structural organization and the material used. This altar, more than any other in the Churrigueresque style, gives the effect of being cast in pure gold, because of the quality and the quantity of gold with which the wood is covered. The altars of the church at Tepotzotlán, or of Regina, or of the Cathedral of Mexico, have an aspect of gilded fragility beside this really magnificent work. The side altars, less rich, and more like the usual examples of this style, are also very beautiful. . . .



Courtesy National Railways of Mexico

ALHÓNDIGA OF GRANADITAS

Insurgent forces under the command of Hidalgo captured this Spanish stronghold on September 28, 1810.



Courtesy National Railways of Mexico

JUÁREZ THEATER

The rich mines of Guanajuato enabled its inhabitants to attain a high degree of culture.

We have seen the beautiful panorama of the city in full sunlight. The ramparts of the encircling hills, bathed now in the radiant light of the sun, begin to be enveloped in soft red and blue tones which fade slowly to rose and violet, gradually merging until a beautiful gray, edged with a faint light, is left; a few moments more and the darkness is complete. Tiny lights slowly appear in the streets and windows, instantly adorning the blackness of the night. Suddenly there appears on the horizon a beautiful full moon whose pale silver reflections give a further charm to this enchanting spectacle.

It is time to descend the hill of San Miguel and lose ourselves in the maze of picturesque narrow streets, romantic alleyways, and story-book lanes, where fancy

embroiders fantastic legends. Like imperial Toledo, Guanajuato counts these byways its special attraction for the enjoyment of the traveler. Whether they are poetic, twisting, novelesque, sordid, or mysterious, all are interesting. There are streets of the Dawn, of the Kiss, of the Second-Hand Shop, of the Gorge, of the Bouquet, of the Five Lords, and of many other romantic names.

Let us continue our walk through the labyrinth of deserted and silent streets. Guanajuato is sleeping under the opalescent light of the moon. Before the majesty of the quiet, mysterious, sleeping city we feel that we are dreaming and living in the days of the viceroyalty. Suddenly we hear distant footsteps and imagine that Inquisitors are coming, but no; it is only night watchmen, quickly lost in the darkness.

In some of the streets there are niches with images, illumined by faint little lights. By one which has a Mater Dolorosa, a tablet covered with dust briefly chronicles a story: On this street there once lived happily in a luxurious mansion a beautiful lady named Doña Beatriz, heiress to a large fortune left to her by her father, Don Íñigo de Sandoval y Montes Claros. She was courted by two proud and handsome suitors, Don Diego Guzmán de Quiñones y Don Álvaro de Acuña y Bracamontes, neither one of whom was able to win her love. One night the two rivals met face to face under the window of their loved one; a few words were exchanged; soon swords were drawn and crossed angrily. Short and furious was the struggle that Doña Beatriz viewed from her latticed window until, suddenly losing her reason, she screamed wildly and fell. In the early morning the constables, making the round of the city, reported two corpses, each stabbed in the heart.

In a yellowed and worm-eaten manuscript it is related that in a crooked lane, there lived at the end of the 17th century a miser named Don Alonso de Carbajal y Mendoza, who had enriched himself by every kind of usurious business. At that time he was associated with an old alchemist of Jewish descent named Maese Gonzalo de Sollerich, skilled in the transmutation of metals, whom Don Alonso had brought from Majorca in order that he might transform his fabulous wealth, consisting of many silver bars and thousands of silver coins, into bright and shining gold doubloons. These, together

with the countless ones which he already possessed, would go to fill the large chests and earthen jars which he had buried in various parts of the patio and stables adjacent to his house.

The neighbors began to note that sinister noises, always at midnight, were heard in Don Alonso's house and that flames and smoke, accompanied by a strong smell of sulphur and other horrible odors, were emitted. This, joined to the reputation which both had of being magicians and unbelievers, made people suppose that something diabolical was taking place. The Inquisition was informed and one day with much fanfare agents appeared at the home of Don Alonso and Don Gonzalo and corroborated the belief that they were practising witchcraft and other diabolical arts, and were converted Jews who had lapsed into error. Their property was confiscated and they were seized and taken in chains to the prison of the Inquisition in the city of Mexico, where they remained until, after a long time, during which they were subjected to many tortures, they were condemned by the Holy Tribunal of the Inquisition to be burned at the stake for being heretics, wizards, and backslidden converts, who had practised infernal arts such as alchemy and who had a pact with Satan.

After the sentence had been publicly proclaimed, the culprits, wearing the habit and conical cap of the condemned, were led between royal officials to the place of execution, and the terrible sentence was carried out as a warning to heretics and evil doers.

Women and Labor in Latin America

FOUR YEARS AGO, the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor started an active program of cooperation with labor departments of other American Republics to consult and to exchange information for the purpose of improving working conditions for women and enlarging their employment opportunities. The plan of the Women's Bureau included visits of its representative to the Latin American Republics and of women labor officials of those countries to the United States.

In September 1944, Senhora Jandyra Rodrigues of Brazil, Señora Clara Williams de Iunge of Chile, Señora Carmen Vásquez Gómez de Molina of Mexico, and Señora María Teresa Quiñones de Correa of Puerto Rico arrived in Washington to begin a three-month program of study and observation in the United States. It was planned that they should spend most of their time in a few states. The first two weeks were occupied by an orientation course in the United States Department of Labor, Washington. The object was to give the visitors some idea of the work of the Department of Labor and of its relationships with the state departments of labor, and to initiate these officials into the maze of labor legislation of forty-eight different states, in addition to that of the Federal Government.

At the cordial invitation of the state departments of labor, two of the visitors went to North Carolina and later to Wisconsin. The other two spent more than three weeks in Rhode Island and a shorter time in Hartford, Connecticut, and Boston, Massachusetts. All four went to New York City and worked with the New York State Department of Labor from November 24 to December 18.

They studied the labor legislation of these states and observed methods of enforcement; they had time to discuss mutual problems, such as industrial home work and child labor, and methods used in trying to solve these problems; they visited factories and studied health and safety measures. They spent time in the offices that issue child labor certificates, and observed vocational schools and training classes for war industry jobs. They became acquainted with trade unions. They saw low-cost housing projects and social welfare institutions, and were guests of women's and other civic organizations. They were invited to homes of the friends made in different places. All the persons who worked with them in the different states wrote to the Women's Bureau to say how much they had learned from the visitors and how delighted they were to have had the opportunity of cooperating with them.

The four women officials felt the urgency of the war effort in the United States and sensed the seriousness of the problems that this country faces now and will face after the war is over. They realized that the United States appreciated how vitally important the contribution of their peoples is to the war, and that the United States knew it would need their understanding and their friendship in postwar years.

At a meeting held at the Pan American Union on December 20, 1944, under the auspices of the Inter-American Commission of Women, whose chairman, Señorita Minerva Bernardino, presided, the visitors spoke briefly on labor questions affecting women in their respective countries. It was decided that each would emphasize one particular phase of the subject, since the



WOMEN LABOR OFFICIALS

Left to right: Senhora Jandyrá de Rodrigues, of Brazil; Señora Clara de Iunge, of Chile; Señora Carmen de Molina, of Mexico; Señora María Teresa de Correa, of Puerto Rico; Miss Mary Cannon, of the United States.

time was too short to give anything resembling a comprehensive account of the women of any one country.

The first speaker was Senhora de Rodrigues, who is Chief of Inspection for Women and Child Workers in Manufacturing and Commerce of the State Department of Labor, São Paulo, Brazil. Senhora de Rodrigues has been in the Labor Department ten years and in her present position four years. She described her activities in the course of the following remarks on women in Brazil:

Until the last century the influence of women on the civil and public life of Brazil was, with some exceptions, felt only in the role of mother, wife, or counsellor.

After the first World War, women began to work outside of their homes and to show their intelligence and capacity for work. They began to work side by side with men, helping them to form a new society and contributing to the life of the country.

Social prejudice was disappearing, economic independence was coming, and in 1932 and 1934 the women of Brazil were granted the same political and civil rights as other Brazilian citizens. From this time on a large number of women became interested in economic, social, and political problems. They entered universities, and they became deeply concerned about better living conditions for all the people.

Since 1933 we Brazilian women have formed many organizations for the purpose of preparing women for participation in civic and political life, and for training women for work through

vocational and trade schools, in day and night classes.

In government service, we have a large number of women and many of them occupy high positions. Our work compares favorably with the work of men. For example, a woman is director of an important division in the Ministry of Education and Health. Other women are judges, lawyers, doctors, or chemists, or hold good positions in various ministries. In the diplomatic service, Brazilian women have held posts in Rome, Paris, Liverpool, and in South American countries. The women secure their government jobs through competitive civil service examinations.

In my own field of work, the Department of Labor, many women are chiefs of divisions, principally those which are responsible for women's and children's work. Here you have an example of one of them—I am Chief of the Division that takes care of working women and children. I have in my Division of the Department of Labor in the State of São Paulo a staff of 12 inspectors and 42 other persons. My Division has the responsibility for enforcing the laws regulating hours of work, minimum wage, wage collection, maternity leave, and child labor.

Child labor is one of the most serious problems that we have in Brazil, and naturally it is hard for us in the State of São Paulo because that is the most highly industrialized State and has the largest number of children working.

My Division of Women's and Children's Inspection gives special work permits for minors between the ages of 14 and 18 years. Children under 14 years are not permitted to work. No employer can give a job to a boy or girl who does not have a work permit—that is, a little

book that we call *carteira do menor*. The work permit is issued when the boy or girl presents a birth certificate, authorization from the father or mother, medical and school certificates, and two small identification photographs. We keep these documents in a special file and give the book—the *carteira*—to the minor. The permit is for one specific job only and for a limited time. If a child changes his job, he must have another medical certificate and a transfer must be noted in his book. In any case, a minor must have a medical examination once a year.

The boy or girl 14 years of age who has not completed elementary school and does not have a school certificate but who needs to work, receives a temporary work permit that controls school attendance. Unfortunately a large number of children begin working when they reach the age of 14, because they need to help support their families.

I have tried to tell you in a few words something about the children and about the women of Brazil. I want to say also that all the women of Brazil, from the President's wife down, are working with great interest in our war activities—at home, in the factories, in civilian defense.

Señora de Iunge of Chile is Chief of the Inspection Division for Women and Child Workers in the Province of Santiago. Taking her present position in 1932, she organized the division and set up standards for the inspection of home work. Among her duties is the training of new inspectors. A graduate of the State School of Social Work, Señora de Iunge was for a time director of the National Employment Service. She helped organize relief work for the unemployed in 1931 and for the earthquake victims in 1939. Señora de Iunge said:

In Chile the same labor legislation applies to men and women. They can work eight hours daily and 48 hours weekly. A maximum of two extra hours a day may be worked if the employer has a special permit, and these two hours must be paid for at the rate of time and a half. Work on Sundays and holidays is prohibited with the exception of certain work in which women are not employed. All workers have two weeks' paid vacation after one year of employment. Trade unions can be organized when there are 25 or

more workers in the factory. Women are members of and occupy executive positions in trade unions. In Chile the law provides that ten percent of the profit of an industry which is organized shall be given to the trade union, one-half for the individual workers and one-half for the union. Until recently the men in the unions did not allow the payment of maternity benefits from union funds as sick benefits. The Women's Bureau, of which I am the Chief, has succeeded in getting the large unions to include the payment of maternity benefits.

In addition, there are some special regulations for women: they cannot engage in work hazardous to health or morals. The law requires equal pay for equal work. Domestic servants have two weeks' paid vacation after one year's work and the social security laws apply to them as to all workers in Chile. Room and board are considered part of their wages in connection with the payment of sick benefits and with retirement for old age or incapacity.

Maternity is especially protected by the labor code. Women who are expecting babies have the right to rest six weeks before and six weeks after childbirth. During this period they receive half their wage. If there is some complication or illness because of the birth of the child, the rest period is extended the necessary time upon presentation of a medical certificate. The employers pay two-thirds of the wage during maternity leave and the Social Security Fund the other third. But if the woman is not entitled to payments from the Social Security Fund, the employer must pay the whole amount.

When a factory employs 20 or more women, a nursery must be provided to care for young babies. Not more than 25 children can be cared for in each nursery. In Santiago, the capital of Chile, there is only one factory that has found it necessary to establish two nurseries because the women do not like to bring the children with them to the nurseries. There are more or less 300 factories with nurseries but only about 100 are used to any extent. The women are allowed one-half hour in the morning and one-half hour in the afternoon to feed their babies. Wages are paid for this time even when the worker is on a piece rate. The law requires that each nursery be maintained in good condition; the walls must be painted white and the room provided with iron cribs covered with sheets, blankets, etc. There must also be facilities for bathing the babies and a kitchen for preparing food. It is necessary to

have an attendant who is at least a practical nurse in charge of each nursery.

My Division in the Department of Labor is responsible for enforcing the legislation that applies to women and children. We have 7 inspectors, who are either lawyers or social workers. Appointment to the Labor Department is by competitive examination, and there is a regular system for promotion.

I want to tell you also that the women in Chile are much interested in democracy. They began and organized the work of civilian defense which today is a large government agency. It was taken over by men, who are now its directors. Women also were organized and were part of the popular movement when the people of Chile asked their government to break off relations with the Axis. Many of our women occupy important positions in public office. We have municipal, but not national, suffrage. However, we are active in our political parties and through our organizations have a strong influence on the affairs of our nation.

Señora de Molina, from Mexico City, has been for the last three years labor inspector for the Women's Division of the Mexican Department of Labor. Her work is especially concerned with enforcing legislation protecting women and children. A trained social worker, she developed a program of social work among employed women at the request of the Mexican Labor Department. Señora de Molina spoke as follows on some aspects of Mexican labor legislation:

I am glad to have this opportunity to speak about our workers' education and also about our social security law because I think we have good reason to be proud about what we are doing in Mexico in these two fields.

There is in Mexico City what we call the Workers' University of Mexico, where special instruction is given in labor legislation, the development of the union movement, union membership, the work of shop stewards, collective agreements, economics, technical jobs, etc.

This University offers seminars, given by refugees or visitors, on social, industrial, and economic development in their countries. In Mexico most of the vocational and high schools have evening classes for workers, where they get a regular high school training.

Our national schools of music, art, and the

dance also have evening classes which are attended by a great number of workers and members of their families. All of these are supported mainly by the Department of Education.

Now I will tell you about our social security law. It was in the year 1921 that the first bill on social security was presented; although it was not passed, it awakened great interest in the advantages and problems relating to the establishment of such a fund. In 1932 this question was brought up again but it was not until 1943 that the law was passed. It began to be enforced in the month of January 1944. For the moment it is applied only in the Federal District but we hope to extend it throughout the country in the near future. The headquarters of the Social Security Institute, which administers this law, are in Mexico City. The Executive, after consultation with the Institute, will fix the date when government employees, home workers, domestic servants, and agricultural workers will be brought under the social security law. Insurance of employees is compulsory in all private industries, production cooperatives, and industries under workers' management, as well as those controlled by the government.

The social security law covers accidents, occupational diseases, maternity, incapacity, old age, unemployment, and death.

It has been calculated that the amount of money needed to cover these benefits is around 12 percent of the total payroll, of which 6 percent is paid by the employer, 3 percent by the government, and 3 percent by the employees or workers. The employer makes the deductions from his employees' weekly wages and, after adding his own contribution, forwards the payments to the Social Security Institute. No deduction can be made from the amount due any employee earning the minimum wage; the employer has to pay both his and the employee's share. In case of accidents and occupational disease, an employee is entitled to medical care, including tests, special treatments when advised by the attending physician, and medicines. If he is prevented from working on account of accident or occupational disease he receives sick benefits, according to his wage, until he goes back to work. In cases of ordinary illness the employee is given medical care, medicines and a sick benefit when the illness prevents his working.

The members of the family of an insured worker who are economically dependent on him are entitled to medical care and medicines when sick.

Women workers when having a child are entitled to the obstetrical assistance necessary, and also to sick benefits 42 days before and 42 days after the birth of the child. From eight days before to 30 days after childbirth this benefit is equivalent to her total wage. In order to get these benefits the woman must not work during this time. She also gets assistance in cash or in kind during the first six months of the baby's life.

Workers over 65 years of age are entitled to retire with an old-age pension without need of proving their incapacity for work. If before reaching 65 years the worker is incapacitated he gets a pension.

In case of death, the widow of the insured gets a pension according to the earnings of the deceased.

When collective agreements provide for benefits greater than those offered by the social security law, employers are obliged to increase their contribution so that the Institute will be able to meet the expense without reducing benefits.

The last speaker was Señora de Correa of Puerto Rico, where she is Chief of the Women's Division of the Department of Labor. Her duties include the administration of labor legislation, the inspection of all places where women work, the investigation of living conditions of employed women, and the enforcement of minimum-wage orders for industries employing women. The Division also advises women workers in connection with wage claims and other problems. Señora de Correa, like Señora de Iunge and Señora de Molina, is a trained social worker. She said:

I am going to tell you briefly about the advancement of women in Puerto Rico since the American occupation in 1900. Before that time, under the Spanish government, the activities of women had been limited, those of a public nature

being confined to religious and social gatherings. After Puerto Rico became an American possession and territory, conditions changed in regard to women. They began to enter public life and have accomplished a great deal. Woman suffrage was granted in 1929, and as a consequence Puerto Rico has women in the legislature, women mayors, women judges, women in divisions of the executive branch, numerous women professors in the University, and many others in various professions such as medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and law. In fact, they are invading all fields. Especially in the last few years political parties have been interested in giving women a larger participation in all Puerto Rican affairs.

Coming now to women workers, I want to tell you that Puerto Rico does not have large factories; on the contrary, there are small enterprises and shops and there is much industrial home work. There are many women workers, and they are protected and benefited by good labor laws. Their enforcement is in the hands of the Labor Department, the head of which is a very competent man with liberal ideas.

One of the projects recently undertaken was a workers' education program, which is designed to educate workers in regard to the laws protecting them, the rights that they may claim and the duties that they must fulfill, so that there will be a better understanding between employer and employee.

The women of Puerto Rico, like those in the United States proper, help in the war effort by working in the Red Cross and in special groups such as nurses' aides, canteen corps, motor corps, social service, home aides, and the U.S.O. It is, of course, well known that Puerto Rico is an important military center, with engineers' offices, an office of censorship, and military camps.

Notwithstanding the progress made so far by the Puerto Rican Department of Labor, it is needless to say that we are far from being satisfied, and that the Department, labor organizations, and everyone concerned are continually struggling for a better tomorrow for the laboring classes of the island and naturally for our women workers.

Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation

ON February 20, 1944, President Manuel Ávila Camacho of Mexico and President Franklin Delano Roosevelt of the United States exchanged letters expressing their satisfaction with the work of the Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation, which held its final meeting on January 29, 1945. President Ávila Camacho said in part:

The Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation leaves in our hands a program of greater scope, the fulfillment of which has scarcely begun and which should be carried out in the years to come in accordance with the new methods of exportation which the Government of the United States has established in its administrative organization looking toward the return of international trade to normal channels. It is my hope that the execution of this program will be characterized by the same spirit of frank cooperation which made possible the creation of the Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation and the satisfactory performance of its duties in the midst of abnormal conditions.

President Roosevelt wrote in the course of his letter:

I have long noted the very extensive contributions of Mexico to the war effort of the United Nations. Throughout the war Mexico has maintained a continuous flow of strategic materials to the United States. Furthermore, the thousands of Mexican workers who have come to the United States have performed essential services and have done much towards alleviating the critical manpower shortage in agriculture and railroad transportation.

In spite of the demands of war upon all the resources of the United States, it is a source of satisfaction to my Government that it has been able to carry out its pledge under the resolution of the Third Consultative Meeting of Foreign

Ministers held at Rio de Janeiro in 1942 for the Maintenance of the Internal Economies of the American Nations. Although in 1943 and 1944 the industry of the United States, through conversion and expansion, was primarily engaged in the production of war materials, it was nevertheless possible to make available and supply to Mexico for its consumption needs and the maintenance of its economy more products in those years than during any similar period of time in the trade between the two countries. I am also gratified to know that in 1944, a year of tremendous demands upon the industry and economy of the United States, my country was able to meet the requirements of Mexico for materials and equipment for the maintenance and development of its economy in amounts greater than it had received from all world sources in any year preceding the war.

The fulfillment of immediate and long-range plans for the improvement of transportation, the extension of electric power, irrigation and other public works, the sound expansion and diversification of industrial plant capacity, and the supplying of the necessary equipment required therefor, gave added momentum to the increasing purchasing power of the Mexican people and the sound expansion of trade between our two countries.

The Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation has played an important role, not only in assisting in obtaining materials and equipment for Mexico's economic development, but also in focusing attention on the significance of this development, its problems, and its requirements for still greater expansion when peace comes.

The report covered the activities of the Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation, referred to below as "The Commission," from its organization in September 1943 to January 1945. As released by the Department of State, it said.



LOCATION OF
PRINCIPAL PROJECTS

Courtesy of Mexican-American Commission

The Commission was created by the joint action of the Governments of Mexico and the United States. The Mexican members who were appointed by President Manuel Ávila Camacho were: Primo Villa Michel, Evaristo Araiza, and Salvador Ugarte. The American members who were appointed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt were: Nelson A. Rockefeller, Wayne C. Taylor, and Thomas H. Lockett.

At its first meeting, the Commission designated Señor Villa Michel as its Chairman, and Mr. Rockefeller as its Vice Chairman.

The Commission was formed for the purpose of carrying forward to the maximum degree within the period of the war emergency, the recommendations made in July 1943 by the previous Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation, hereinafter referred to as the "Previous Commission", which was set up following the meetings in April 1943 of the two Presidents

at Monterrey and Corpus Christi to consider and make recommendations with regard to the most pressing economic problems calling for the immediate joint action of the two countries. The Commission, with the approval of the two Presidents, assumed the name of its predecessor Commission.

The Previous Commission had found that Mexico's economy had become unbalanced by reason of wartime conditions. On the one hand, Mexico was exporting a maximum amount of critical and strategic materials to the United States for the common war effort. On the other hand, because of the conversion of industry in the United States to war production and the cutting off of former overseas sources of supply, Mexico was unable to obtain sufficient imports to maintain its national economy adequately and at the same time to continue the flow of war materials to the United Nations.

The Commission determined that the economic development of Mexico along sound lines, with such amounts of material and equipment from the United States as could be made available without interfering with the war effort and the essential needs of other friendly countries, would do much to meet Mexico's wartime economic problems, as well as those to be faced in the immediate postwar period.

The Commission therefore, after convoking sponsors of prospective public and private projects and after a thorough consultation with them concerning Mexico's immediate needs for economic development, prepared its so-called Minimum 1944 Program. This program included the important projects submitted by the interested parties, and consisted of twenty projects with an over-all total cost of approximately \$24,000,000. Smaller projects submitted, with an over-all total cost of approximately \$9,000,000, were turned over to the Mexican Comité Coordinador de las Importaciones for its recommendations.

Practically all of the materials and equipment required for the projects in the Minimum 1944 Program have been licensed, and arrangements have been concluded to the end that they will be made available. Most projects are already under construction.










To consider Mexico's long-term capital goods requirements, the Commission appointed a joint Subcommittee on Industrial Development in April 1944. This Subcommittee, after a study of the applications and proposals made by the interested parties, submitted to the Commission in June 1944 a comprehensive report of Mexico's programs in the power and irrigation fields, and substantial information as to other phases of its need for future economic development. The Subcommittee estimated that according to projects and suggestions considered, Mexico will need in the areas studied a minimum of capital equipment from abroad valued at approximately \$94,000,000 through 1947, and \$43,000,000 in 1948 and the immediate subsequent years for projects of major significance to its economic development. These projects have an estimated total over-all cost of \$383,000,000, as more fully set forth in the attached charts.

The report of the Subcommittee on Industrial Development has been considered by the Commission and accepted and made available to the two Governments, the Commission urging them to fulfill the recommendations contained in the report. The Commission believes that this report

will be of great value to the two Governments in such further joint economic activities as they may determine to be necessary, or desirable, in the years to come. Moreover, this report points the way to the realization of major portions of Mexico's development program.

The Commission has approved a total of fifty-eight development projects of which twenty were the total of major projects submitted for the Minimum 1944 Program, thirty-one were included in the Long Range Report of the Subcommittee on Industrial Development, and seven were important miscellaneous projects. The greater part of the required equipment for these projects is now either in Mexico or in the process of being manufactured for delivery. Its purchase is being financed entirely by private enterprise, preponderantly Mexican, or, in the case of public works, such as electric power, irrigation and drainage, by the Mexican Government.

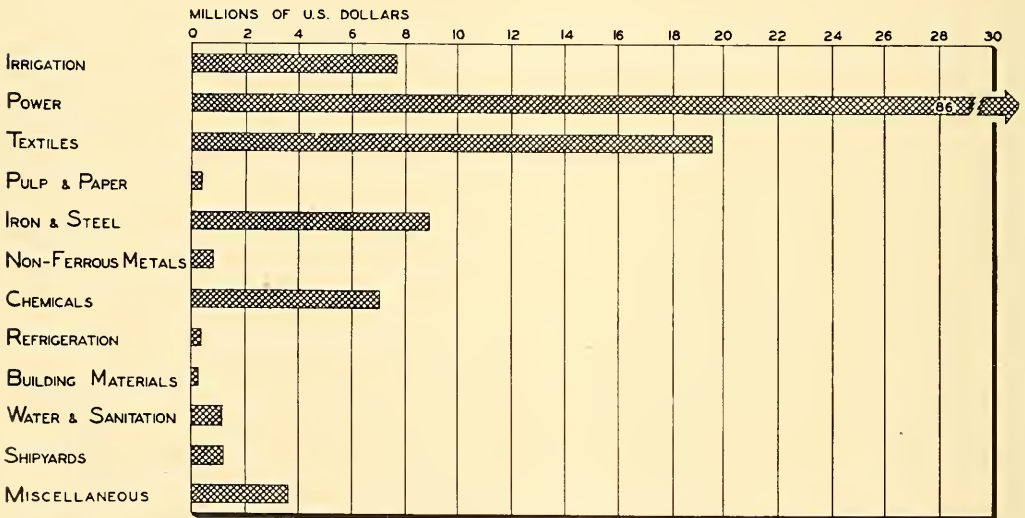
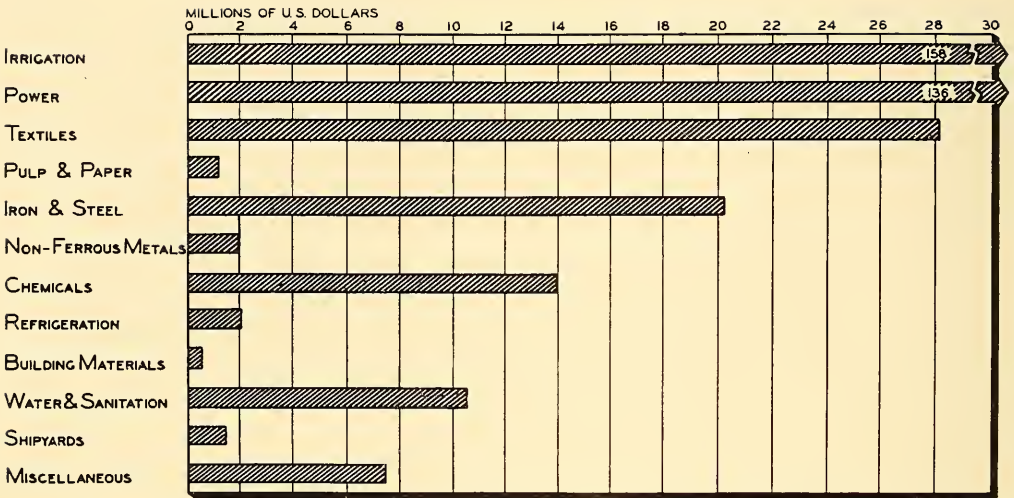
The Commission has conferred with business men of both countries regarding the formulation and development of sound projects with the participation of both Mexican and United States capital when appropriate, and has rendered every possible assistance to the sponsors of such projects. However, the primary assistance which this Commission has been able to render, after previous study and industrial planning, has been in the obtaining of priorities and export licenses to the end that materials required for these

	NO. OF PROJECTS	ADDED ANNUAL CAPACITY
STEEL		45,000 METRIC TONS
TEXTILES	 RAYON YARN	2,721 METRIC TONS
	 COTTON CLOTH	1,819 METRIC TONS
CEMENT		386,400 METRIC TONS
PULP & PAPER	 PULP	10,500 METRIC TONS
	 PAPER	9,500 METRIC TONS
POWER	● ● ● STEAM	72,500 KILOWATTS
	■ ■ ■ HYDROELECTRIC	
IRRIGATION		250,000 ACRES
CHEMICALS	 FERTILIZER	12,800 METRIC TONS
	 PENICILLIN	1,000,000 AMPOULES

Courtesy of Mexican-American Commission

MINIMUM 1944 PROGRAM

Number of projects and increase in annual capacity (estimated).



Courtesy of Mexican-American Commission

LONG-RANGE REPORT OF SUBCOMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Above: total cost of projects, \$383,000,000; below: cost of equipment from abroad, \$137,000,000.

projects have been made available as promptly as possible, consistent with the war effort and the needs of other friendly countries.

Following the Previous Commission's recommendations, the Commission has also reviewed the general requirements (*i.e.*, requirements not related to specific projects) of Mexico for commodities in short supply and has urged revisions in allocations from the United States, on the

basis of changed conditions in Mexico, or on the basis of data heretofore not available. This additional information on Mexico's requirements has been most useful to the war agencies and, in view of such information, certain allocations have been increased or established for additional products.

To carry out its functions with regard to immediate problems in broad fields of economic devel-

opment, Subcommittees of the Commission, in addition to that on Industrial Development already referred to, made studies and recommendations in the following fields: agriculture, aviation, highway transportation, and tourism. Briefly summarized, these Subcommittees carried out their objectives in the following manner.

Agriculture.—Largely through the efforts of this Subcommittee, a program was drawn up under which the Banco Nacional de Crédito Ejidal, S.A., placed orders in the United States for approximately \$3,200,000 of agricultural machinery and repair parts, nearly all of which have been shipped to Mexico. The work of this Subcommittee brought out the need of resolving many technical agricultural problems affecting the two countries, and to this end, a separate Mexican-United States Agricultural Commission was appointed by President Avila Camacho and President Roosevelt, and began its activities in June of 1944.

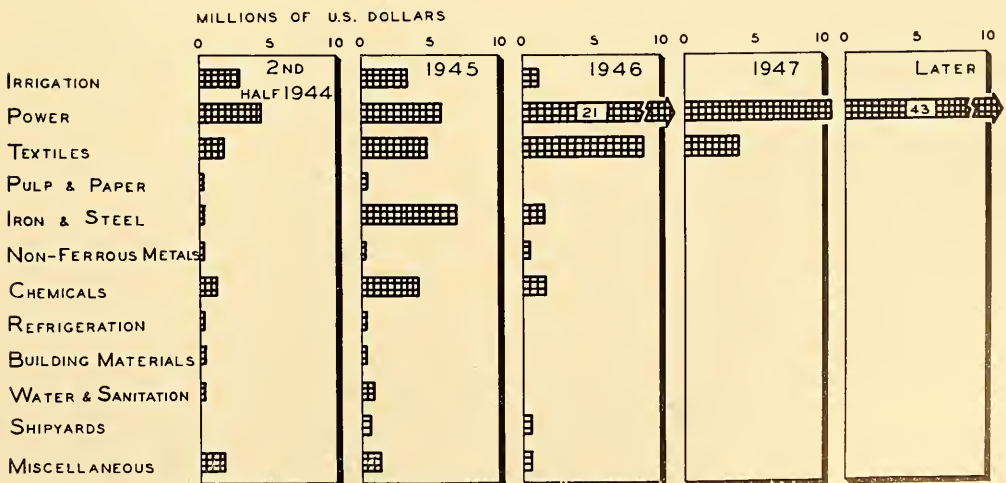
Aviation.—The Subcommittee on Aviation has achieved its objectives in a two-fold manner. Throughout the period of its activities in Mexico, much useful advice and counsel was given to the Mexican airlines on operation, maintenance and equipment problems particularly difficult of solution, considering the wartime scarcity of repair parts and equipment. In addition, through the efforts of the Subcommittee, 21 used planes were

located and obtained in the United States for service on Mexican commercial airlines.

Highway transportation.—As in the case of the Subcommittee on Aviation, the Subcommittee on Highway Transportation provided much helpful guidance and made recommendations to the appropriate agencies of the Mexican Government towards the solution of truck transportation problems and the further development of sound highway transportation policies.

Tourism.—The labors of the Subcommittee on Tourism were naturally pointed towards the post-war growth of the tourist industry, since the promotion of travel for pleasure on wartime congested facilities is neither feasible nor desirable. Considerable useful information was compiled which was made available to both Governments together with recommendations designed to encourage and facilitate tourist travel after the war. It is estimated by the Subcommittee that the tourist industry, which was already of major significance before the war, will approach an annual volume of business of around \$50,000,000.

It is the policy of the Government of the United States to return to normal conditions, eliminating wartime controls, as rapidly as the war situation will permit. Many such controls have already been eliminated. The allocation of materials and equipment is now governed much less by the assignment of priority ratings and



Courtesy of Mexican-American Commission

LONG-RANGE REPORT OF SUBCOMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Delivery schedule of equipment from abroad.

the issuance of export licenses than in the past, and eventually these controls will disappear altogether. Export licenses are being issued for materials for projects whenever such action does not cause interference with the war effort. Therefore, the Commission believes that it has completed the wartime function for which it was created and it respectfully submits to the Government of the United Mexican States and the Government of the United States of America that it adjourn *sine die*. The Commission believes that it has carried out the recommendations of the Previous Commission to the maximum extent possible during the present emergency and considers that its work has contributed substantially to the economic development of Mexico and has

constituted an achievement in the light of difficult wartime conditions. The Commission hopes that its work may contribute much towards the growth of Mexico's economic structure and that it may pave the way towards further development, thereby bettering the purchasing power of the Mexican people and their general standard of living, and stimulating mutually advantageous commercial relations between Mexico and the United States.

The Commission has received throughout, the generous and understanding collaboration of both Governments. The Commission further hopes that the completion of its work will constitute another forward step in the practical application of the Good Neighbor Policy.

Music Education in Fourteen Latin American Republics

VANETT LAWLER

Music Education Consultant, Pan American Union

Part I

MUSIC EDUCATION in the American Republics offers great challenges and at the same time promises significant rewards in both general education and inter-cultural relations in the western hemisphere.

The establishment of the Music Division of the Pan American Union in 1941 has without question been one of the most significant steps in the development of music education and in integrating information in

this field in all the American Republics. A survey of music education in fourteen Latin American Republics was sponsored by the Music Division and carried out last year by the writer, who serves as music education consultant to the Division and as liaison officer between the Pan American Union and the National Education Association.

On a trip of six months' duration the writer visited Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Colombia, Chile, Peru, Venezuela, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Cuba, and also Puerto Rico. In each country contacts were made and information was obtained under the direct supervision of the minister of education and his staff.

This article is summarized from Miss Lawler's complete report, published in Spanish and English under the title Educación Musical en 14 Repúblicas Americanas—Music Education in 14 American Republics. The report ends with a series of eleven recommendations. The monograph, which is liberally illustrated, may be purchased from the Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C., for fifty cents.



UNIVERSITY OF PUERTO RICO CHORUS IN A COMMUNITY CONCERT

The survey was undertaken (1) to study the concept of music education held in the Republics visited; (2) to convey to each of them information about the concepts and practices of music education in the other Republics visited and in the United States; (3) to ascertain how the Pan American Union can best serve the member Republics in the field of music education; and (4) to give specific assistance when requested in fostering professional organizations.

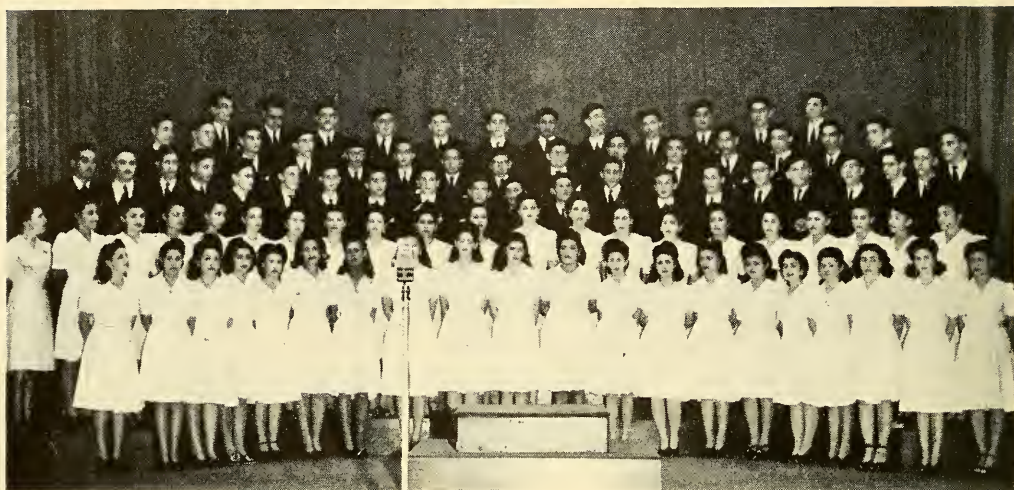
Every country visited, it was found, provides for the teaching of music to children in the schools. As in the United States, not all of the children in all of the schools receive music education.

The most significant factor in music education in the fourteen Republics, in the opinion of the writer, is that both general educators and musicians—such as composers, musicologists, conductors—not working directly in music education are so vitally in-

terested in its development. They accept the premise that without music in general education, a country's music life is too narrow in scope and the education of the children incomplete. This attitude will have a profound effect on the development of both education and music. In the United States until very recently music education has not, for the most part, had wholehearted support from composers, musicologists, conductors, and other professional musicians.

Administration and Training in Music Education

MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION.—The attitude of the Ministries of Education in the fourteen Latin American Republics augurs well for the development of the arts as a part of education. These ministries are made up of persons who understand the art aspects of education and want to see them developed



CHORUS OF NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, CARACAS

to a greater extent. Some of the Republics have wisely included Directors of Cultural Relations in their Ministries of Education.

Moreover, the centralized organization of education in Latin America as compared with the local and state set-up in the United States may well have a beneficial effect on music education. In Latin America the Ministries of Education are directly responsible for their countries' over-all educational programs.

CONSERVATORIES.—Some of the more recently organized conservatories are considering the idea of departments of music education within the conservatory, and are making plans for well-organized curricula in music education, including not only theory, the teaching of instruments, courses in pedagogy, and philosophy and psychology of music education, but also courses in practice-teaching by the students before they enter the profession. Among the conservatories where these new ideas are taking hold are those in San José, Costa Rica; Panama City; Cali, Colombia; and Ciudad Trujillo.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—In considering the

preparations of music educators—that is, teacher training—certain normal school developments should be mentioned, though they are by no means the only ones that exist in the countries visited. The normal school in Santiago, Panama, with an enrollment of over 800 students, includes some courses in music education and plans to increase the number of music courses so that the students can actually teach music when they become classroom teachers. In the Rural Normal School at La Picota (*Escuela Rural de la Picota*), near Bogotá, where some of the teachers for rural schools in Colombia are prepared, the writer observed practical use of folk music and folk dances, and instruction in informal instruments, such as the guitar. When these teachers go into rural communities in Colombia they will have no difficulty in applying this type of instruction.

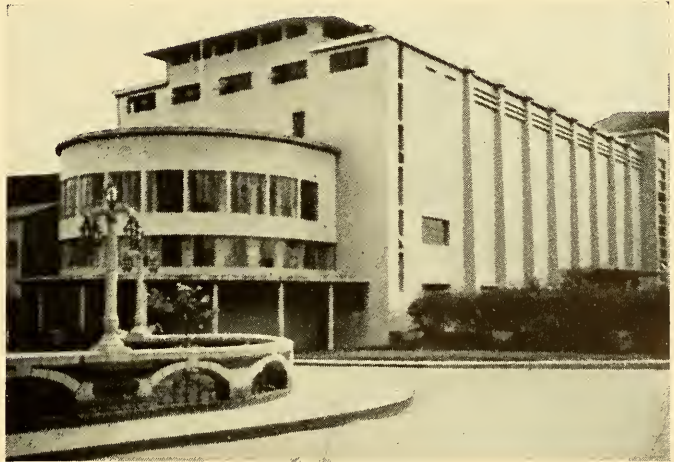
Another interesting activity in normal schools was observed in Santiago, Chile. Refresher courses are offered regularly for teachers who are already in active service. The teachers not only listen to lectures, but actually participate in the music activity,

including singing games and rounds, which they will later be able to give to their pupils. In other words, these courses include the practical application of music education. At Normal School No. 2 in the same city, future teachers receive considerable training in music education, including participation in one of the best a cappella choirs the writer heard on the trip.

The importance of the normal schools in the development of music education in Latin America was observed in Venezuela also. Here both musicians and educators have suggested that courses entitled "music education" should begin in the normal

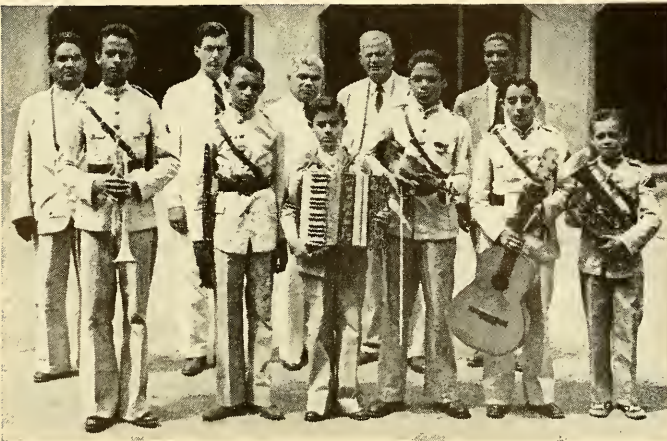
schools, and that classes in *solfeo* and *canto* should be a part of a broader program.

At the Normal School in Puno, Peru, near the Bolivian border, folk music and folk dances of the country are used as the basis of the music education program of the future teachers. Another excellent example of the use of folk music was observed at the Normal School in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, where much use is made of it under the supervision of the Director of Music Education of the Republic. In San Salvador, at the Spain Normal School, all the arts are integrated in the general education program, and annual productions are undertaken by the



A CONSERVATORY AND A CHORUS

Above: the Conservatory at Cali, Colombia, a most progressive public institution, takes an active part in the life of the city. Below: the Community Choir, Guatemala City.



THREE MUSICAL GROUPS

Above: District Band, Ciudad Trujillo; center: singing at the Spain Normal School, San Salvador; below: a Honduran students' band. (Behind the boys are the Minister of Education, the American cultural attaché and school officials.)

300 students in cooperation with the Salvadorean Symphony Orchestra and the Government Band.

UNIVERSITIES.—In general, the universities in Latin America have not participated in the music education program in the same way as have the universities in the United States, and only a few have schools of music. An exception is the National University of Mexico, where the National School of Music trains students for professional work. An interesting activity of this school is the monthly concert given by the students in the Palace of Fine Arts in Mexico City, at which an orchestra, a chorus, or soloists are heard. There are also outstanding music groups in the following: The Catholic University at Santiago, Chile; Santa María University, Valparaíso; the National University, Caracas; the University of Habana; and the University of Puerto Rico.

Special mention should be made of the activities of the University of Chile in Santiago, which gives the country a coordinated program of music deserving of much commendation. Its success is due to the University's College of Fine Arts, under which the Conservatory and other schools of fine arts function. Also under university supervision is the Institute of Music Extension, which is responsible for the Chilean Symphony Orchestra, the Chamber Music Society, young people's concerts, and the Department for the Investigation of Chilean Folk Music. The Institute also serves as headquarters for the Society of Chilean Composers. This coordinated community music program enjoys unusually skillful leadership and vision.

Finally, in reviewing performing organizations within institutions, mention should be made of the chorus in the National Conservatory of Mexico, the chorus and orchestra of the Conservatory at Cali, Colombia, the Orfeón Lamas in Caracas, Venezuela, the chorus in the new Conservatory in Panama,

the chorus in the National Conservatory in Guatemala, the chorus and orchestra in the Conservatory of the Province of Oriente in Santiago, Cuba, and the chorus and string orchestra in the National Conservatory at Bogotá.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. All of the fourteen Republics visited have music teaching programs in their elementary and secondary schools. There was some music activity in each of the 150 schools visited by the writer, with emphasis on choral rather than on instrumental work.

In Mexico the writer saw some interesting work in rhythm bands and choral work in the elementary schools Estado de Michoacán and Emilio Carranza. Equally interesting was the music program at an elementary school for orphans in Mexico operated by the Fundación Mier y Pesado, and the marimba bands in the Marcos Carías Reyes correctional school in Honduras. In Nicaragua, considerable attention is given to the organization of drum and bugle corps in many of the schools.

In Costa Rica, with its excellent educational system, the Girls' High School, which has 900 students, does praiseworthy work in mass singing and in two- and three-part singing with smaller groups. Likewise, the Boys' High School, with an enrollment of 1,000 students, has a very good music program, which gives special attention to the problem of boys' voices. It was also the privilege of the writer to hear a special concert at the National Theater in San José in which 700 elementary school children, 25 from each of the elementary schools, sang. The Girls' High School in the Republic of Panama stresses Panamanian folk music and dances, and groups from the school contribute to community activities. The Panamanian Girls' Vocational School, with 800 students, also gives special attention to national folk music. Students and faculty participate in folk music

and dances at the Manuel José Hurtado School, in Panama, and this school also has a small instrumental group. Another Panamanian vocational school (*Artes y Oficios*) has an enrollment of over 1,300 boys who participate in a program of music education with emphasis on their own folk music.

Several elementary schools were visited in Bogotá, and it was observed that in addition to a regular singing program particular attention is given to singing games. In addition, special mention should be made of the fine equipment for music education in the Colegio San Bartolomé. The Liceo para Señoritas¹ in Bogotá has a school chorus which sings in both English and Spanish, and a music appreciation course using records. If the wishes of the director of the school are fulfilled, this progressive institution will also have an orchestra.

The forward-looking programs carried on in Colombian private schools merit commendation. In two of the larger schools visited—the American School for Girls and the American School for Boys—and in the American Pre- and Primary School for small children, the writer found some of the most modern concepts of music education observed

¹Both these schools are equivalent to high school and junior college.

on the entire trip. The Gimnasio Moderno for boys and the Gimnasio Nuevo for girls, both under exceptionally able direction, lose no opportunity to include the arts, particularly music, in their programs. In the Gimnasio Moderno the band, which was organized some three years ago, plays an important part in all school activities. The combined chorus from this school and the Gimnasio Femenino was heard in a church service.

It is not possible to comment on music groups in the elementary and secondary schools in the Dominican Republic, Peru, and Venezuela, since they were on vacation during the writer's visit. Though the schools in Chile were also closed during most of the writer's stay, the organization of the music program was investigated. Some very sound plans are being worked out under a general supervisor of elementary school music. In Santiago, at Children's Home No. 2, one of the elementary schools in session, the entire student body participates in a music program; and in the Manuel de Salas Experimental School the music education program is consistently good, due to the cooperation of the administration, the able music faculty, and the student body.



MARIACHI BAND OF THE ESCUELA DE INICIACIÓN ARTÍSTICA, MEXICO CITY



CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY CHORUS, SANTIAGO, CHILE

Mention should be made of the excellent music education work, especially in creative music by children, in the Observation School at the University of Puerto Rico. The Commissioner of Education and the general administrators in the Puerto Rican schools are taking steps to improve the music education program through careful study of the following major factors: more time for music education in the schools; a more carefully planned teacher education program; and materials selected with a view to their use in the schools.

Conferences with general educators in Haiti disclosed that in the development of the intensive vocational education program now being inaugurated, the progressive idea is accepted that music education should be a

part of this program. It will be of interest to watch its development.

In Cuba, elementary and secondary school music programs are developing through the cooperation of the Confederación Nacional do Conservatorios y de Profesionales de la Música, the Grupo de Renovacion Musical, and the very active interest of the Director of Cultural Relations in the Ministry of Education. The Instituto Edison, a private school in Habana, has a good student band, and in the lower grades is privileged to have some of the best rhythm band training observed on the trip. The Instituto Cívico Militar, one of several Government institutions for boys and girls under exceptionally able supervision, makes major contributions to Cuban community life.



The handsome new building of the Bank of the Argentine Nation stands on the Plaza de Mayo in Buenos Aires. It is faced on the outside with white quartzite and on the inside with marble, wood paneling, and tiles. Almost everything in its construction is of Argentine origin. Pneumatic tubes, numerous inter-office telephones, a loud-speaker system, light signals, moving stairways, air-conditioning, and excellent safety vaults are among its modern features. Above: the main entrance. Below: the president's private office.

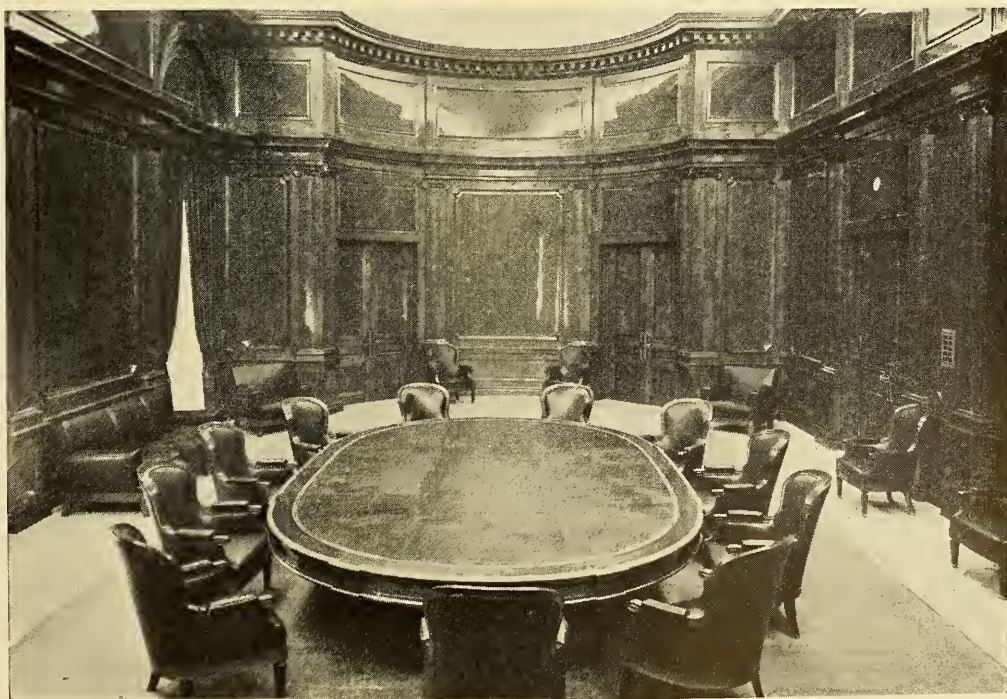
Courtesy of the Argentine Embassy
in Washington

ARGENTINE NATION

While the architecture of the Bank is classical in style, it shows a modern Argentine impress, especially in the functional interior arrangement. The offices of the Bank are spacious and convenient. The lofty 160-foot hall, where most of the business is transacted, has a translucent roof, supported at the corners by pairs of pillars. Among the facilities for employees are medical service, a gymnasium, and a dining room. Above: the great hall; below, the directors' room.



Courtesy of the Argentine Embassy
in Washington



Geometric Proportions in the Colonial Architecture of Peru

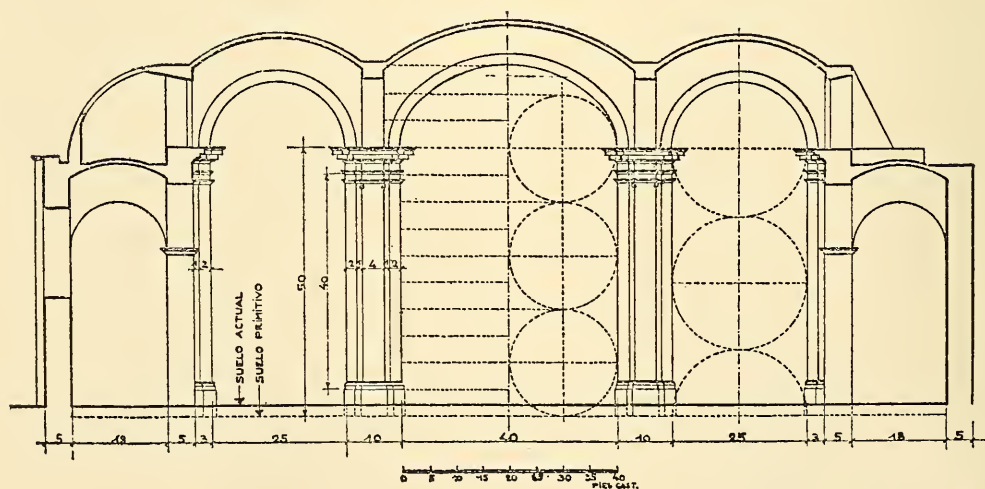
WALDEMAR MOSER

IN accordance with the respective period and style, all classical architecture is subject to certain more or less rigid rules of geometric proportion. It is the proportions, not the exterior details, that determine the structural beauty of a building. Similarly in music, it is not the individual melodies that build a musical work, but fixed rules of composition, known only to professionals in this art. Once I heard someone speak of "the architecture of a symphony." And we have in architecture the term "the harmony of a building." We can see, then, that these two

fields of art have something in common,—something which can be found in the realm of geometry.

Even in ancient Greece buildings were erected according to fixed principles. The three classical styles of antiquity were subject to canons and modules which determined the height of the column in relation to its base and the other architectural elements. During the period of the Italian Renaissance people wrote long treatises on architectural proportions, containing rules to govern design. Less is known about the application of such rules in the styles of architecture that grew out of the Italian Renaissance. As for Spain, I believe that there

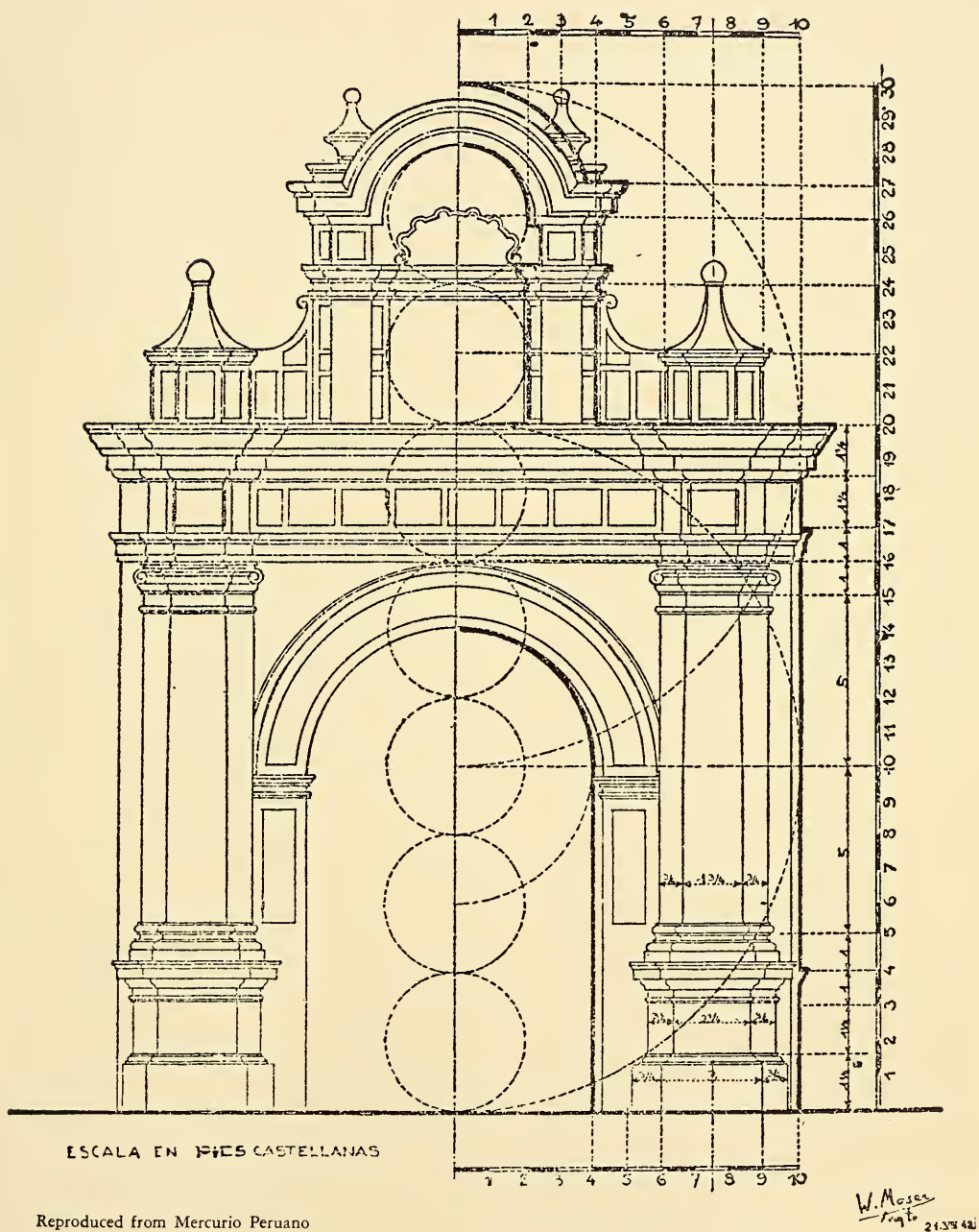
Translated from "Mercurio Peruano," Año XVII, Vol. XXV, No. 186.



Reproduced from Mercurio Peruano

FIGURE 1. CATHEDRAL OF LIMA

Transverse section, with measurements in Spanish *pies*. The arrows indicate the present floor and the presumed earlier pavement.



Reproduced from Mercurio Peruano

FIGURE 2. CHURCH OF SANTO DOMINGO, LIMA
Door to the convent, with measurements in Spanish *pies*.

has been very little said concerning rules of design in its architecture. Nevertheless, I have studied the problem enough to say that many, if not all, great Spanish architectural works in the baroque period were planned with conscious adherence to rules on the part of the architects, at least in the construction of arches, vaulting, and domes.

Spanish art in America has always been considered a creole art, fanciful and without fixed rules of proportion. Therefore it had never occurred to anyone to look for such standards in examples of colonial architecture in Peru or, probably, anywhere in South America. A few years ago *El Comercio* of Lima published an interesting article,¹ written by the architect Emilio Harth-Terré, on the subject *Rules of Design in Colonial Art*. The author said that he had found, purely by accident, geometric proportions in the arches of the Church of St. Francis of Assisi in Huamanga (Ayacucho), "erected," according to the text, "by the Franciscan order, a brotherhood closely connected with Italy." Moreover, Señor Harth-Terré supposes that there may be other buildings in Peru planned with a conscious application of the rules of design, and he laments that "as yet technical studies of colonial art which, if systematically carried out, would be of great benefit to our historical knowledge have not attained their due importance."

I had not proposed to carry out research in this field; nevertheless, when about a year ago I was taking measurements in the Cathedral of Lima to draw a complete plan of it as it is today, I realized that I had here a series of numbers, in centimeters, which was repeated frequently and regularly. I began to notice that the numbers were all related to a basic 28 centimeters, for instance: 7, 14, 28, 42, 56, 84, 112, 140, etc. The larger measurements were all, or almost all,

multiples of 28 centimeters, for example, 7.0 meters, 8.4 meters, 11.2 meters, etc. Then I understood that all the measurements of the Cathedral had been based on the Spanish *pie*, which practically equals 28 centimeters. This discovery aroused my interest and, once the plan resulting from my measurements had been drawn, I began to search for what I believed must exist in the Cathedral of Lima: geometric proportions between the various elements composing the building.

In Figure 1 the results of the study can be seen. Few explanations are necessary. In Lima, as in several Spanish cathedrals of the same period (Jaén, Valladolid, Zaragoza), one finds the relation between the width of the side aisles and the nave to be 2.5 to 4, while that between the width of the nave and that of the flanking columns is 4 to 1. This absolute regularity in the ground plan led me to believe that there must be an equally exact proportion between the width of the side aisles and the nave and their height to the impost of the arches. In many Spanish churches this height is fixed in proportion to width at 1 to 1, 1 to 1.5, or 1 to 2. In the case of the Cathedral of Lima it seemed that the proportion would have to be 1 to 2 in the side aisles and 4 to 5 in the nave. In other words, the vertical measurement should theoretically be 50 *pies*, equal to 14 meters.² However, investigations showed that the height was only 13.5 meters. I could not believe that there had been an error in construction or planning, since the building showed an admirable exactitude in its other elements. Rather I came to the conclusion that there must exist an earlier, lower, floor level, and that the 50 centimeters difference were the result of later fillings of debris fallen in the various

¹ This article also appeared in "El Arquitecto Peruano," Lima, March 1941.

² Since the side aisles are 25 feet wide, and the nave 40 feet, a height of 50 feet would result in the proportions of 1:2 and 4:5.

earthquakes that the cathedral has suffered. Figure 1 clearly indicates the supposition here expressed.

Encouraged by the result of my studies on rules of design in the Cathedral, I wanted to investigate other buildings. I have not yet had the opportunity to make much progress, but I have done enough to be able to affirm that architects of the colonial period

had a feeling for geometric proportions. To prove this, I am publishing the analysis of a door in the church of Santo Domingo (Lima), the door leading to the Convent of the same name. As can be seen in Figure 2, the lower part of the door is a perfect square, 20 by 20 *pies*. As for the rest, the drawing speaks clearly, and there is no need of further explanation. I will only add that



Reproduced from *El Arquitecto Peruano*

CATHEDRAL OF LIMA

Pen and ink drawing by W. Moser.

there are slight differences between theory and reality. The theoretical lines, geometrically exact, are represented by a heavy line at the right hand side of the drawing. It is plain that the differences arising from later building are insignificant.

A systematic analysis of existing structures would be of great value in the restoration of monumental edifices totally or partially destroyed by earthquakes or other external

causes. And this study, I must not neglect to mention, would be of great benefit to the originators of the so-called "neo-colonial" art, in which a loose plagiarism of decorative features results in a disastrous general effect; for beauty, whether it be in a great cathedral, a mansion, or a small cottage, depends first of all upon perfection in proportion, to which harmonious details may later be added.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR 8, 12STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	1Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	2Bulgaria 3Rumania 4Hungary	
Argentina.....	6 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(1)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	8 2-12-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	9 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (10)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	11 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	12 G-2-11-45	12 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(13)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	8 2-14-45	8 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*Press Release No. 53*, revised, U. S. Department of State, January 20, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

PART XXXVII

ARGENTINA

1066b. March 20, 1944. Resolution No. 157, Ministry of the Treasury, providing that, as of the same date, the Collector of Customs or Taxes must demand the presentation of an authorization from the Central Bank of Argentina in order to permit the entrance into the country, duty-free, of gold coin or bullion. Exception is made in the case of persons traveling into Argentina who bring with them gold coin not exceeding 200 grams in weight. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 20, 1944.)

115a. April 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 10,274, exempting cord and solid rubber tires from import duties and internal taxation until such time as the Executive Power shall declare that a scarcity no longer exists. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 11, 1944.)

121a. Presidential Decree No. 10,920. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 1, 1944.)

172a. August 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 23,443, providing that the Department of Industry and Commerce shall adopt appropriate measures to assure the supply of materials essential for national defense and for the normal needs of the country; and repealing all previous legislation in contradiction with the present decree. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 23, 1944.)

187a. September 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 25,692, setting up in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs a Committee responsible for advising the Government on possible legal problems arising from the creation of international organizations after the war. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 27, 1944.)

190a. October 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 27,696, providing that importers cannot be obliged to sell or transfer their merchandise to other firms when this would be in contradiction with the agreements upon which the exportation and transportation of said merchandise were contingent. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 4, 1944.)

191. Presidential Decree No. 28,168. (*Boletín Oficial*, October 19, 1944.)

191i. October 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 27,746, including specified fuels and lubricants needed for the coming harvest in the Provinces of Buenos Aires, Córdoba, Santa Fe, Entre Ríos, and Corrientes and the Territory of

La Pampa in the highest transport priority classification established by the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121a, BULLETIN, January and April 1945), this classification to be effective from October 1, 1944, to January 31, 1945. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 4, 1944.)

191z. October 17, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 27,854, fixing ceiling prices for articles of food and clothing in the Territory of La Pampa. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 23, 1944.)

191s. October 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 28,717, extending the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 22,734 of August 23, 1944 (see Argentina 169, BULLETIN, January 1945), which established transport priorities for seed grown under government supervision, to apply to all seed shipped for sowing. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 3, 1944.)

191t. October 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 28,718, including wheat needed for milling in the list of products accorded rail freight priority in Presidential Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121a, BULLETIN, January and April 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, November 3, 1944.)

191u. October 25, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 28,939, creating under the National Postwar Council (see Argentina 172, BULLETIN, January 1945) a special subcommittee to investigate the needs of industry, agriculture and transportation for replacements and additions of machinery, vehicles, implements, and stocks in the first five years following the end of the war. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 6, 1944.)

191v. October 26, 1944. Resolution No. 15,015, Ministry of Agriculture, authorizing millers to allow purchasers of flour an added period of up to 120 days after the deadline previously set for returning empty cotton sacks when transportation difficulties have prevented their return in accordance with the provisions of Resolution No. 3,451 of March 8, 1944 (see Argentina 105a, BULLETIN, October 1944); and suspending the application of said resolution in the case of cotton flour sacks which are sent to the National Territories of Chubut, Santa Cruz and Tierra del Fuego. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 7, 1944.)

191w. October 26, 1944. Decree-Law No. 29,375, reorganizing the army; declaring all Argentines twelve years of age or over subject to national

defense service in peacetime, and all without exception subject to such service in wartime; establishing a peacetime military service period of from one to two years for all male citizens with certain specified exceptions; creating the women's auxiliary service to function when deemed necessary by the Executive Power; creating the rank of General of the Army (*General del Ejército*) to be held only by the commander in chief of the army; and making general provisions governing conscription, organization, pay, rank, promotions, loss of military status, number of men under arms, recruitment, retirement and pensions. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 20, 1944.)

191a. (Correction) October 20, 1944. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 23, 1944.)

191a₁. November 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 29,566, making the Department of Industry and Commerce responsible for the trade in and storing of agricultural and livestock products and inspection of their processes of preparation, and for the manufacture and distribution of textile containers for agricultural and livestock products. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 23, 1944.)

191a₂. November 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 29,572, making the National Marketing Agency for Fruits and Vegetables responsible for the acquisition and sale of the entire onion crop of the nation. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

193. November 8, 1944. Vice-Presidential Resolution establishing within the National Postwar Council Subcommittees on Finance, Public Works, Mines and Quarries; Colonization, Unemployment, Professional and Technical Education, and Immigration; the Employers' Advisory Subcommittee; and the Foreign Chambers of Commerce Subcommittee. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 13, 1944.)

194. November 14, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,748, creating offices of national defense in the Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs and Worship, Treasury, Justice and Public Education, Agriculture, and Public Works; in the Labor and Welfare Department; and in the Mail and Telegraph Administration and the Y.P.F. (Government Petroleum Bureau); and bringing under the authority of this decree the offices of national defense already established in the Department of Industry and Commerce and the National Transportation Office. The duties of the offices of national defense shall be to prepare

the resources of the nation so as to assure normal supply of the armed forces in case of war and maintain their combat strength; and to make provisions to maintain normal living conditions in the country during the war. Each office will have the responsibility of mobilizing its ministry or department in time of war, as well as all industries and services of a private character managed or supervised by its ministry; and of coordinating all the documents requested by the military ministries in the respective departments and offices of the Government. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 17, 1944.)

195. November 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,799, prohibiting the exportation of chromium ores in any form. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 30, 1944.)

196. November 17, 1944. Resolution No. 5,690, Department of Industry and Commerce, creating the Advisory Board for Commerce in and Industrialization of Oleaginous Seeds, whose functions will be to advise on measures necessary to insure the supply of oleaginous seeds, to set up a general industrialization plan for the production of vegetable oils as a substitute for mineral oils, and to fix prices and terms for the buying and selling of such oils. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 30, 1944.)

197. November 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 31,141, declaring *maroma* (*Ficus* sp.) trees subject to expropriation to insure the extraction of the rubber by the Corporation for the Production of Vegetable Rubber. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

BOLIVIA

38. November —, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of National Economy, authorizing an increase in the sales price of sugar from 305.90 to 326.30 bolivianos per quintal. (*El Diario*, La Paz, November 18, 1944.)

39. November —, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of National Economy, authorizing an increase in the sales price of sugar from 326.30 to 340.15 bolivianos per quintal. (*El Diario*, La Paz, November 18, 1944.)

40. November —, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of National Economy, requiring flour mills to maintain a reserve stock of wheat equivalent to six months' normal consumption. (*El Diario*, La Paz, November 20, 1944.)

41. November —, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of National Economy, fixing the sales price for a specified make of trucks. (*El Diario*, November 29, 1944.)

BRAZIL

92*f*. (Correction) Resolution No. 7. (*Diário Oficial*, September 25, 1943.)

122*b*₁. October 2, 1944. Decree-Law No. 6,915, expropriating all patents, models, designs, industrial and commercial trademarks, titles of establishments, advertising emblems and slogans, granted or registered in the National Department of Industrial Property, belonging to natural or juristic persons resident abroad who are citizens or subjects of enemy countries or of countries with which Brazil does not maintain diplomatic relations; providing that this may be extended to include any person whose activities endanger the national security or economy; placing the patents, etc., under the administration of the Bank of Brazil, Inc., which is empowered to grant licenses for their use; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletim Aéreo* No. 318, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, October 6, 1944.)

123. (*Diário Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

125. (*Diário Oficial*, November 25, 1944.)

125*a*. October 26, 1944. Resolution No. 78, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, amending previous legislation to fix new prices for cassava flour. (*Diário Oficial*, October 31, 1944.)

125*b*. October 30, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,002, granting loans and subsidies for the construction of storehouses and silos for grain and seed. (*Diário Oficial*, November 1, 1944.)

125*c*. October 30, 1944. Resolution No. 77, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing new prices for specified cuts of meat. (*Diário Oficial*, October 31, 1944.)

125*d*. October 31, 1944. Resolution No. 19, Executive Textile Committee, amending Resolution No. 7 of September 17, 1943 (see Brazil 92*f*, BULLETIN, April 1944 and above), and listing articles subject to, and articles exempt from, the textile quotas. (*Diário Oficial*, November 6, 1944.)

125*e*. November 1, 1944. Resolution No. 79, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, prohibiting the sale of beef on Thursdays

in Rio de Janeiro; regulating the use of rationed meat in hotels and restaurants; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, November 6, 1944.)

125*f*. November 1, 1944. Resolution No. 43, Executive Fruit Committee, regulating the exportation of pineapple. (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

127. November 7, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,026, amending Decree-Law No. 4,521 of July 24, 1942 (see Brazil 34*a*, BULLETIN, January 1943) regarding the duties and functions of the National Gasogene Commission. (*Diário Oficial*, November 9, 1944.)

128. November 7, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,027, providing that only native Brazilians may serve as agents or representatives of Brazilian shipping companies. (*Diário Oficial*, November 9, 1944.)

129. November 8, 1944. Order No. 302, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, amending order No. 74 of May 28, 1943 (see Brazil 76*z*₂₀, BULLETIN, November 1943), and establishing a new table of minimum prices for exports of quartz. (*Diário Oficial*, November 9, 1944.)

130. November 17, 1944. Order No. 508, Ministry of Education and Health, making provisions to permit students called into the armed forces to continue their classes and take examinations. (*Diário Oficial*, November 21, 1944.)

131. November 18, 1944. Order No. 7,460, Ministry of War, approving provisional instructions regarding the organization and duties of the Corps Area Command. (*Diário Oficial*, November 21, 1944.)

132. November 20, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,056, declaring again in force paragraph *b*, article 197, of the Federal Civil Service Law, which was suspended for the duration of the war by Decree-Law No. 4,693 of September 16, 1942 (see Brazil 41*o*, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Diário Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

133. November 20, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,057, regulating the functioning of courts of justice for the Brazilian Expeditionary Forces. (*Diário Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

134. November 21, 1944. Order No. 306, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing that, as of January 1, 1945, a prior permit must be obtained from the Coordinator to hold fairs or expositions in the states of São Paulo, Paraná,

Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul, Espírito Santo, Minas Gerais and Goiás; and specifying that such permit will be granted only where transportation of livestock or produce for exhibition will not interfere with the transportation of more essential freight. (*Diário Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

135. November 23, 1944. Order No 307, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing the duties and functions of the Executive Textile Committee in the control of the rayon yarn industry (*Diário Oficial*, November 24, 1944.)

136. November 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,260, approving regulations for the execution of Decree-Law No. 7,002 of October 30, 1944 (see 125*b* above) granting government aid for the construction of silos. (*Diário Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

137. November 30, 1944. Order No. 311, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating the Supply Commission of the Territory of Acre and defining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

138. November 30, 1944. Resolution No. 51, Executive Committee on the Fishing Industry, fixing maximum and minimum wholesale and retail prices for fish in Ubatuba (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

139. November 30, 1944. Resolution No. 52, Executive Committee on the Fishing Industry, fixing new prices for a specified kind of fish in the Federal District and Niterói. (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

140. December 1, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,109, authorizing the acquisition of a specified area of land in Natal to be used for the expansion of the Natal Naval Base. (*Diário Oficial*, December 4, 1944.)

141. December 4, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,113, raising to 8 billion cruzeiros the limit on the issuance of war bonds previously fixed by Decree-Laws Nos. 4,789 of October 5, 1942 and 6,516 of May 22, 1944 (see Brazil 44 and 101*g*, BULLETIN, December 1942, April 1943, and October 1944.) (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

142. December 4, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,114, making provisions for the collection of the compulsory war bond subscription. (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

143. December 4, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,115,

authorizing the Ministry of the Treasury to extend for 180 days the term of the National Treasury notes issued or to be issued on the basis of the collection of war bond subscriptions, until the actual receipt of the respective revenues. (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

144. December 4, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,123, approving the Treaty of Friendship between Brazil and China signed in Rio de Janeiro August 20, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 109, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

145. December 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,287, providing for an increase in the salaries of the employees of the Executive Committee on the Fishing Industry in the proportion established by Decree-Law No. 5,976 of November 10, 1943 (see Brazil 93, BULLETIN, March 1944), establishing the family salary system for its employees, and making other provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 7, 1944.)

146. December 4, 1944. Orders Nos. 21-44, Executive Textile Committee, creating the Rayon Yarn Control Service and defining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 7, 1944.)

147. December 5, 1944. Order No. 312, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, lowering the ceiling prices of cottonseed oil fixed by Order No. 214 of March 30, 1944 (see Brazil, 96*r*, BULLETIN, August 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

COLOMBIA

124*b*. May 31, 1944. Resolution No. 373, National Price Control Office, prohibiting the issuance of import licenses for chewing gum, and requiring that space for imports be allotted in accordance with the country's needs as indicated in statistics of the Office of Exchange Control and Exports. (*Diário Oficial*, June 12, 1944.)

149. October 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,481, prescribing procedure for obtaining machinery, tools, and other materials for public works. (*Diário Oficial*, October 23, 1944.)

150. November 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2,723, making regulations for distribution of natural and synthetic rubber. (*Diário Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

151. December —, 1944. Legislative Decree approving the Convention on the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. (*Noti-*

cias de Colombia, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Bogotá, December 22, 1944.)

COSTA RICA

174a. October 13, 1944. Notice, Economic Defense Board, fixing maximum profits for specified classes of imported goods. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, October 14, 1944.)

CUBA

544b. March 8, 1944. Resolution No. 191, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, repealing Resolution No. 173 of December 27, 1943 (see Cuba 516, BULLETIN, April 1944) and fixing new official prices for grade B milk in Habana, Marianao, Regla, and Guanabacoa. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 11, 1944, p. 3908.)

614a. July 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,935, temporarily suspending, in view of the serious meat shortage, the execution of Presidential Decree No. 2,766, of October 2, 1936, forbidding the slaughter of bulls for public consumption. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 7, 1944, p. 11077.)

687a. December 6, 1944. Resolution No. 32, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 1). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1944, p. 22469.)

688a. December 11, 1944. Resolution No. 33, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 2). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1944, p. 22470.)

688b. December 13, 1944. Resolution No. 34, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 3). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 4, 1945, p. 193; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, January 8, 1945, p. 482.)

693. December 30, 1944. Resolution No. 283, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, continuing in effect to June 30, 1945, the prices for cement fixed by Resolution No. 227 of May 19, 1944 (see Cuba 587a, BULLETIN, January 1945.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 3, 1945, p. 97; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, January 17, 1945, p. 1157.)

694. January 2, 1945. Resolution No. 284, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, forbidding the renewal of permits issued by the Industrial Division of the same Office for the acquisition of specified iron and steel articles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 8, 1945, p. 452.)

695. January 3, 1945. Resolution No. 39, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 6). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 17, 1945, p. 1154.)

696. January 4, 1945. Resolution No. 40, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 7). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 17, 1945, p. 1155.)

697. January 5, 1945. Resolution No. 41, Ministry of Commerce, clarifying the dispositions of Presidential Decree No. 3,788 of October 24, 1944 (see Cuba 666b, BULLETIN, March 1945) regarding reduction of rents for market space where essential foodstuffs are sold. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 11, 1945, p. 770.)

698. January 8, 1945. Resolution No. 285, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, approving the rules of organization of the local price commissions, whose reorganization was ordered by Resolution No. 280, Office of Price Regulation and Supply (see Cuba 691, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 12, 1945, p. 803.)

699. January 9, 1945. Resolution No. 286, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, allotting special quotas of tires and tubes to help meet the needs of the sugar cane harvest, the supply of strategic war materials to the United States, the transportation of school children, and the agricultural and industrial production of articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 12, 1945, p. 834.)

700. January 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 74, fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for charcoal in Habana, Marianao, Regla and Guanabacoa, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 16, 1945, p. 1025.)

701. January 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 84, fixing new maximum wholesale and retail prices for charcoal supplying Santiago de Cuba and surrounding towns, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 18, 1945, p. 1219.)

702. January 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 109, prohibiting the slaughter of bulls for any purpose, this decree to become effective only on July 1, 1945, in order to avoid causing a meat shortage by its immediate enforcement (see 614a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 20, 1945, p. 1379.)

703. January 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 89, exempting imported wheat flour from the customs duty ordinarily levied, provided that it has not had the benefit of an export subsidy from the United States or any other foreign government; and making various regulations to insure the proper execution of this decree. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 16, 1945, p. 1060.)

704. January 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 103, amending Resolution No. 191, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, of March 8, 1944 (see 544*b* above), by fixing new official prices for grade B milk in Habana, Marianao, Regla, and Guanabacoa. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 17, 1945, p. 1153.)

705. January 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 117, granting workers in the industrial branch of sugar production an increase of 20 percent over their 1944 salaries and those in the agricultural branch an increase of 10 percent; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 18, 1945, p. 1253.)

706. January 18, 1945. Resolution No. 290, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, making comprehensive provisions governing the purchase, sale, transportation, distribution and slaughter of cattle, and the distribution and sale of beef; fixing ceiling prices for cattle and beef; repealing Resolution No. 118 of June 15, 1943 (see Cuba 423, BULLETIN, November 1943) and all other previous legislation in contradiction with the present resolution; and creating the Cattle and Beef Rationing Section to take the place of the Meat Supply Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 25, 1945, p. 1729.)

707. January 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 238, authorizing the issuance of silver certificates in the amount of 25,510,250 pesos, in view of the general increase in prices of merchandise, wages, and the volume of business transactions, which necessitate an increase in the amount of Cuban currency in circulation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 27, 1945, p. 1923.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

December 1, 1944. Law No. 752, granting certain privileges to the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration to facilitate its operations in the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 5, 1944.)

152. December 11, 1944. Executive Decree No. 2,320, prohibiting the reshipment of merchandise

received from abroad without prior permit from the proper control authorities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 16, 1944.)

153. December 20, 1944. Executive Decree No. 2,345, prescribing measures to assure the effectiveness of Decree No. 2,263 of November 7, 1944, which established rent control (see Dominican Republic 150, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1944.)

ECUADOR

86a. August 10, 1944. Legislative Resolution declaring the National Assembly's solidarity with the struggle of democracy against totalitarianism, proscribing Nazi-fascist and Falangist doctrines, and saluting the peoples and armies of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China, and other fighting nations. (*Registro Oficial*, November 14, 1944.)

87a. August 26, 1944. Legislative Resolution creating a commission to study and work out a solution for the food problem. (*Registro Oficial*, November 14, 1944.)

91a. September 25, 1944. Presidential Resolution approving the by-laws of the Ecuadorean organization "Free Germany," the purpose of which is to unite anti-Nazi Germans resident in Ecuador, to work against Nazi-fascism, anti-Semitism, and racism, and to support the cause of the United Nations. (*Registro Oficial*, November 10, 1944.)

91b. September 26, 1944. Legislative Decree exempting from consular fees, customs duties, and other charges, imports of aviation gasoline for the use of the United States military and naval forces. (*Registro Oficial*, October 31, 1944.)

92a. October 18, 1944. Legislative Decree authorizing the Central Bank of Ecuador under certain conditions to make advances on bills payable abroad and prescribing procedures therefor, in order to develop and facilitate exportation. (*Registro Oficial*, November 30, 1944.)

92b. October 19, 1944. Legislative Resolution authorizing the public in general to report sugar hoarding by warehouses or merchants; providing the penalty of confiscation of hoarded sugar stocks and fixing rewards for those who report hoarding. (*Registro Oficial*, November 9, 1944.)

92c. November 4, 1944. Resolution No. 90, Minister of Commerce, regulating the distribution

and sale of sugar. (*Registro Oficial*, November 8, 1944.)

GUATEMALA

126. December 9, 1944. Decree No. 32, Revolutionary Junta, putting telegraph, cable, and radio offices under government control until further notice. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 12, 1944.)

127. December 11, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 2, approving Revolutionary Junta Decree No. 13 of November 11, 1944 (see Guatemala 123, BULLETIN, March 1945), which recognized the provisional government headed by General Charles de Gaulle as the legitimate government of France. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 19, 1944.)

128. December 15, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 9, approving Revolutionary Junta Decree No. 16 of November 22, 1944 (see Guatemala 124, BULLETIN, March 1945), which repealed the requirements of Presidential Decree No. 2,963 of October 5, 1944 (see Guatemala 40, BULLETIN, January 1943) but left the exportation of strategic minerals under control of the Office of Economic-Financial Coordination. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 20, 1944.)

HONDURAS

42. November 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 72, permitting, in view of the insufficient number of two-centavo coins in circulation and the impossibility, because of the state of war, of having new ones minted immediately, the importation and temporary circulation of United States pennies, to the value of \$10,000. (*La Gaceta*, December 16, 1944.)

43. December 16, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 9, approving Presidential Decree No. 72 (see 42 above). (*La Gaceta*, December 23, 1944.)

44. December 19, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 10, amending Legislative Decree No. 9 of December 17, 1941 (see Honduras 5, BULLETIN, April 1943) to except Italian funds from the freezing order, and providing for the release and return to Italian citizens of those funds which had been frozen. (*La Gaceta*, December 27, 1944.)

45. December 21, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 12, approving Presidential Decree No. 71 of May 19, 1944 (see Honduras 41, BULLETIN, November 1944), making provisions for the transfer by sale to Honduran citizens of all prop-

erties of Axis subjects or of any other individuals resident in Honduras whose actions have been prejudicial to the security of the American continent. (*La Gaceta*, January 2, 1945.)

MEXICO

278a. November 22, 1944. Decree permitting Mexican citizens to render civil or military service during the present war to any government among the United Nations. (*Diario Oficial*, February 1, 1945.)

278b. November 29, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury, fixing prices for articles of prime necessity outside the Federal District. (*Diario Oficial*, February 1, 1945.)

282a. December 13, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury, amending previous lists of persons included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, February 2, 1945.)

286. December 30, 1944. Decree authorizing the President at his discretion to send troops outside the country during the present state of war. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

287. January 17, 1945. Circular No. 309-1-3, Treasury Department, issued in accordance with the decree of April 15, 1944 (see Mexico 243a, BULLETIN, August 1944), declaring glass tubes in general to be subject to import restrictions. (*Diario Oficial*, January 26, 1945.)

288. February 2, 1945. Law authorizing the Department of the Federal District to take temporary control of urban and suburban transportation services in case of their paralysis during the present emergency. (*Diario Oficial*, February 3, 1945.)

PANAMA

119. November 24, 1944. Decree No. 57, Office of Imports, Price and Supply Control, fixing maximum prices for a specified brand of infants' food. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 18, 1944.)

120. December 12, 1944. Decree No. 58, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, fixing maximum prices for beef, pork, and seafood in Chepigana District. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 18, 1944.)

PARAGUAY

30. February 18, 1943. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 18, 1943.)

65. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree naming a special committee to cooperate with the UNRRA delegation in determining what Paraguay's contribution to UNRRA will be. (*El País*, Asunción, December 1, 1944.)

66. December —, 1944. Presidential Decree authorizing a specified firm to export 22,000 pounds of crude rubber. (*El País*, Asunción, December 5, 1944.)

67. December —, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, establishing new quotas for wheat flour for bakeries and making other regulations governing the baking industry. (Mentioned in *El País*, Asunción, December 16, 1944.)

PERU

109c. December 7, 1943. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, declaring that all coal mines are subject to the supervision of the state in a technical advisory capacity, and providing that transportation of coal for exportation shall be carried out under the direct control of the state, and that no coal may be moved without an official certificate of quality. (*Boletín de Aduanas*, Callao, July 1944.)

120. Supreme Resolution No. 332. (Mentioned in *El Peruano*, December 5, 1944.)

130i. July 8, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, providing that for the duration of the war the Customshouse shall allow passengers coming from countries at war to bring in more excess baggage than is normally accepted, provided that the baggage consists of personal articles and not of merchandise. Authorization will be required

in each case from the Office of the Superintendent of Customs. (*Boletín de Aduanas*, Callao, July 1944.)

140b. October 23, 1944. Supreme Resolution No. 824, Ministry of Agriculture, fixing the duties and functions of the Flax Industry Committee (see Peru 120, BULLETIN, October 1944) and adding to its membership two delegates from the Sierra. (*El Peruano*, December 5, 1944.)

142. Supreme Decree No. 11. (*El Peruano*, December 5, 1944.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

76i. February 23, 1943. Agreement between the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States and the Government of Ecuador regarding quinine. (Mentioned in *Registro Oficial*, Ecuador, December 1, 1944.)

164a. September 4, 1944. Agreement between the United States Commercial Company, an agency of the United States Government, and the Government of Ecuador, canceling the quinine agreement of February 23, 1943 (see 76i above) between the Defense Supplies Corporation and Ecuador, and making new provisions to be effective to December 31, 1945. (*Registro Oficial*, Ecuador, December 1, 1944.)

172a. December 20, 1944. Agreement effected by an exchange of notes between the Canadian and United States Governments as to the disposition of those American defense facilities in Canada, disposition of which had not been settled previously. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, February 4, 1945.)

Pan American News

Frontier agreement between Argentina and Chile

An agreement between the two countries which went into effect on the first day of this year provides that citizens of Chile may enter Argentina and citizens of Argentina may enter Chile by any of the ordinary land, sea, or air routes; they need present only a document of personal identity and a permit issued without charge by a consular officer of the country to be entered. Such permission is good for a visit of no more than three months, and does not include the right to accept paid employment, except in the case of farm or mine workers for whom such right is stipulated in writing on the consular permit.

The same privilege may be extended to citizens of other American republics and of Canada, provided such citizens were born in this hemisphere and have been living in Chile or Argentina for more than two years; but in these cases consular officials may grant or withhold the permit at their discretion.

For Chileans and Argentines who live in small border towns where there are no consular officers a special arrangement has been made. They may cross the frontier by presenting only a document of personal identity or a certificate of residence issued by the police, but their visits are limited to two weeks.

Sanitary treaty between Colombia and Ecuador

A treaty organizing cooperative measures for improvement of sanitary conditions along the border between Colombia and Ecuador

went into effect in January of this year, and is believed to be the first of its kind in South America. Scientific research is to go hand in hand with practical measures for treatment and control, in a coordinated campaign against typhus, rabies, and various other diseases of the region. Centers will be established in Ipiales and in Tulcán to provide both prophylactic services and treatment of patients; Colombia's national hygiene laboratory in Pasto is being enlarged to include diagnostic and control work on rabies, with veterinary services for the immunizing of dogs; and in many of the villages along the banks of Colombian and Ecuadorean rivers flowing into the Pacific, dispensaries are to be opened.

Haitian commerce and finance in 1943-1944

September 30, 1944, marked the close of the Haitian fiscal year 1943-44. The Fiscal Department of the National Bank of the Republic recently issued a summary of the significant results of the year's commercial and financial operations.

Although war conditions made for uncertainty at the beginning of the fiscal year in question, it was evident as the months passed that the dislocation of normal processes was resulting in the creation of a form of prosperity for Haiti. The two leading factors in the improvement of economic conditions in Haiti during the year were rising prices and the fact that markets were readily available for the disposal of the country's chief export crops. These factors, of course, were clearly the result of war conditions and no definitive conclusions regarding the long-

term future could well be based on what may prove to be merely a temporary state of affairs; but on the other hand, at the time the Bank's report was issued, there seemed to be no reason to anticipate any immediate reversal of trends.

The value of imports and exports in 1943-44 reached levels unequalled for fifteen years or more. Imports were valued at 80,155,000 gourdes¹ as compared with 49,202,000 gourdes for the previous fiscal year, while exports for the same period were valued at 80,542,000 gourdes, compared with 53,073,000 for the preceding year. Thus, notwithstanding the unusually high value of imports, the year ended with a small export balance of 387,000 gourdes. This was the third consecutive year that Haiti has terminated with a favorable trade balance.

A comparison of the fiscal year 1943-44 with the fiscal year 1942-43 showed the following increases in quantities imported: kerosene, 350 percent; gasoline, 34 percent; soap, 66 percent; paints, 31 percent; cotton piece goods, 34 percent; jute bags, 76 percent; fish, 63 percent; wheat flour, 89 percent; and beverages, 60 percent.

The following increases in import values were noted: manufactures of iron and steel, 80 percent; perfumery, 99 percent, and machinery and apparatus, 275 percent.

Increased exports of raw sugar, bananas, and cotton all helped to swell the total value of Haitian exports during 1943-44. Raw sugar in the amount of 77,384,528 kilos, valued at 21,560,520 gourdes, was exported, as compared with 11,534,422 kilos valued at 3,373,835 gourdes in 1942-43. Bananas continued to be exported in increasing quantities during 1943-44. Banana shipments had come to an almost complete standstill in 1942, but during 1943-44 2,889,677 stems valued at 7,981,771 gourdes were shipped

abroad. In the previous year only 603,695 stems valued at 1,318,689 gourdes were exported. Cotton exports during 1943-44 more than doubled in both volume and value as compared with 1942-43. Cotton shipments of 4,679,996 kilos valued at 5,478,829 gourdes compared with 2,001,899 kilos valued at 2,148,929 gourdes during the preceding fiscal year. Both coffee and sisal exports experienced a decline in volume and value from the 1942-43 figures.

Government revenues totaled 42,370,000 gourdes during 1943-44, approximately 29.5 percent above 1942-43 receipts, and higher, in fact, than those of any year since 1928-29. As compared with the preceding fiscal year, customs receipts for 1943-44 were 38.8 percent higher and internal revenues 21 percent higher. The latter, in fact, established an all-time high record. The income tax accounted for 3,703,000 gourdes, or 35.3 percent of the total of all internal revenues. This is an interesting fact, for there was no increase in rates, and therefore the rise in income tax collections was plainly due to greater business profits and improved methods of collection.

The excellent revenue returns of 1943-44 made it possible for the Government to close the fiscal year with an unobligated treasury surplus of 4,778,000 gourdes, in spite of the fact that disbursements totaled 42,021,000 gourdes. The gross public debt as of September 30, 1944, stood at 60,460,000 gourdes, as compared with 70,419,000 gourdes at the end of September 1943. The decline of approximately 10,000,000 gourdes included 4,000,000 gourdes paid in September 1944 on account of amounts due during the fiscal year 1944-45.

Poultry industry in Brazil

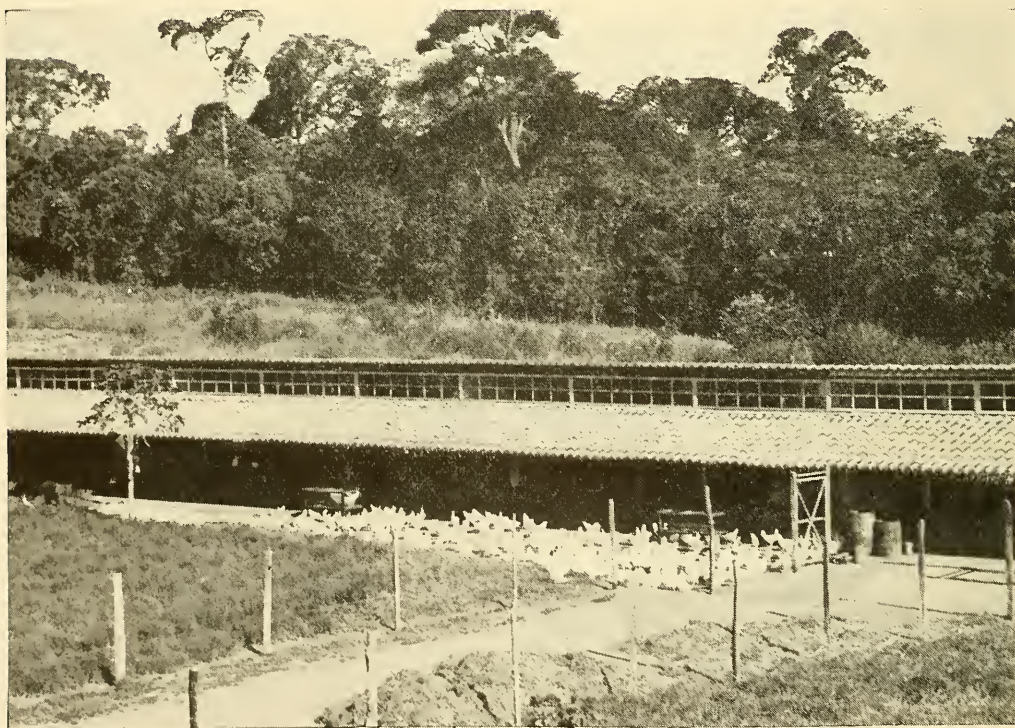
An intensive development is at present taking place in the poultry industry of Brazil,

¹The exchange rate for the Haitian gourde is fixed at 5 to the U. S. dollar.

especially with regard to chickens and turkeys. Wartime conditions in general, and the lack of transportation services in particular, the latter a result of insufficient gasoline supplies, were the main factors in motivating the Government to take steps to promote the industry through a campaign that is already showing good results. In Northern and Northeastern Brazil, especially, inadequate transportation facilities made it impossible for normal poultry supplies to reach the population centers. The Government's action in the matter is channeled through the Ministry of Agriculture, which is cooperating with private industry and the Brazilian-American Food Production Commission (established in September 1942 by agreement between the Brazilian and United States

Governments to work for the development of food production in Brazil).

Because of good prices for both poultry and eggs, private individuals are engaging more and more in this industry. The Ministry of Agriculture, however, is urging the installation of modern henhouses and is requesting that poultry-raising on a small-scale "back-yard" basis be abandoned. Among other projects the Ministry is planning to establish at the agricultural-industrial colony center of Itaparica in the São Francisco Valley a farm city with a capacity for 450,000 laying hens. This number of hens is expected to produce a daily minimum of 200,000 eggs, of which 60,000 will be sent to Recife for consumption and the remainder dried or exported in the shell. This project calls for no



Courtesy of John Wilson da Costa

A MODEL BRAZILIAN POULTRY FARM

cash loans; instead, each colonist who shows the proper qualifications and adaptability will be provided with land and a henhouse for 4,000 laying hens, as a credit to be repaid in ten annual installments beginning during the third year of operation.

Much of the poultry raised in Brazil is of mixed and native breeds, but the Government has recently imported some good breeds, some for laying and others for meat, which seem to be adapting themselves very well to the Brazilian environment. Poultry co-operatives are also playing an important part in the improvement of breeds. Several co-operatives in the Federal District are giving great assistance to poultry raisers and other co-operatives have been established for the same purpose in the States of Pernambuco, Rio Grande do Sul, and Espírito Santo.

Recently the Government undertook the construction of 30 hatcheries near federal and state agricultural stations in Northeastern Brazil. Each hatchery holds 2,000 chicks. The government-established poultry and egg depot in Rio de Janeiro, which is managed by the farm cooperative of the Federal District and the State of Rio de Janeiro, has incubators with a total capacity of 120,000 eggs. In Pernambuco a plan for the exchange of eggs with the United States was developed in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture and Pan American Airways. The first shipment of eggs from the United States was immediately put into incubators in Recife, the state capital, and yielded good results.

A poultry experiment station for the selection of fowl was established on the Rio de Janeiro-São Paulo highway near the site of the National School of Agriculture and the offices of the National Research Center of the Ministry of Agriculture, now under construction. This station is expected to become the most modern poultry distribution center in Brazil.

Another recent step of the Ministry of Agriculture to aid still further in the development of the country's poultry industry was to send several technical experts to the United States to study advanced practices.

As the egg industry has advanced, the Government has taken steps to provide adequate legislation concerning the inspection and grading of eggs sold for public consumption or for export. Eggs are now regularly exported from Brazil. In 1933 an experimental shipment of 3,000 boxes, totaling about 1,000,000 eggs, was exported from the State of São Paulo; in 1934, 8,000 boxes containing close to 3,000,000 eggs were exported. Although the unit weight was a little lower than European markets were accustomed to, the Brazilian eggs were well received because they had been carefully selected for both size and quality. Indicative of the growth of such exports are the figures for 1941; in that year Brazil exported 94 metric tons of eggs in the shell.¹

Dehydrated fruits and vegetables in Mexico

As a result of the war the dehydration of fruits and vegetables has undergone remarkable development in Mexico in recent years. At present 20 dehydrating plants are in operation. In 1941-42 the country had five plants for the production of dried chili, with an annual output of 11,000 tons; 3 factories for drying milk products; and a few others that produced dried bananas or banana flour.

In 1942-43 Mexico produced 480 tons of dried bananas and 220 tons of banana flour. The banana drying plants are located in the States of Veracruz, Tabasco, and Chiapas. In Fortín, Veracruz, there is a pineapple dry-

¹ This article was summarized from a report in the "Brazilian Bulletin," Brazilian Government Trade Bureau, New York, November 1, 1944.

ing plant which in 1944 produced approximately 110 tons of the dried fruit. The same plant also dehydrates papaya and has capacity for a production of 5 tons a month.

The chili drying factories are all located in the Territory of Baja California and have been very successful, with a present production figure of about 2,200 tons a year. Their success is acting as an incentive to the plant owners to extend their operations to other vegetables.

The one factory for the dehydration of onions and garlic is located in Mexico City. In 1943 it produced 11 tons of dried onions and 12 tons of dried garlic. Since then the plant has been moved to new and larger quarters and is now producing some 9 tons per week, working with onions in the winter and spring months and with garlic the rest of the year.

Peruvian Treasury Archives

The Archives of the Ministry of the Treasury and Commerce of Peru were recently installed in rooms in the Palace of Justice.

These Archives were organized by the Government for the purpose of consolidating in one place all the material on national economic history that had previously been dispersed through various other libraries and files. The situation had been particularly bad with reference to documents of the colonial period, a fact that had greatly hampered and inconvenienced research work.

The new Archives are divided into two sections, Colonial and Republican. The Colonial Section contains nearly 1,300 manuscripts pertaining for the most part to the Royal Treasury beginning in the year 1602; over 200 volumes covering the Tribunal del Consulado, from 1613 to the time of independence; a particularly interesting collection of the proceedings of the

Boards of Trade, including a great amount of data concerning financial and commercial conditions in Peru during the various vicerealties; and a large collection of juridical and religious documents, such as property titles, wills, judgments, and papal bulls and indulgences. No less interesting is the Republican Section, which contains all important treasury files accumulated since the time of independence. The entire collection is being catalogued.

The new quarters of this important library are adequately protected against fire hazards, a precaution uppermost in the minds of government officials in view of the tragic loss by fire of the National Library of Peru on May 10, 1943.

Social security for commercial employees in Argentina

A system of social security for personnel employed in commerce and related activities was established in Argentina by a decree-law dated November 22, 1944, to become effective January 1, 1945.

The funds for pensions will be made up of monthly deductions from employees' salaries, proportional contributions from employers, deductions made under previous legislation, and a sales tax on all purchases, with the exception of medicines, amounting to 5 pesos or over.

In order to be eligible for the regular pension provided by the law, a man must be at least 55 years old, with a total of 30 years of service; and a woman, 50, with a total of 27 years' service. Shorter length of service may be counteracted by greater age, and vice versa.

Special provisions are made for payment of pensions to those retiring before attaining the minimum age or length of service, to those retiring because of disability, and to

dependents in the case of death of the employee entitled to the pension. The law states that employers also are to be included in its provisions, in accordance with a plan which the National Institute of Social Welfare will formulate in the first year after the law comes into effect.

Argentine Public Health Office

An Argentine decree made public on December 2, 1944, extends the sphere of action of the National Public Health Office to include the whole country and assigns it duties covering every aspect of public health and sanitation. Among these are: the organization and supervision of periodic medical examinations which will be compulsory for the entire population of the country; the organization and maintenance of vital statistics; the establishment of sanitary standards for the preparation and handling of food products, especially milk; the study of nutritional problems; the study and adoption of measures to help in solving problems connected with maternity and child health; immigration and emigration inspection; epidemic control; assistance to parts of the country stricken by catastrophes; the regulation and inspection of the production of drugs, medicinal products and cosmetics; the creation, support and management of hospitals and health services; the inspection and approval of new hospitals as a condition to their opening; the study and adoption of measures for the prevention of occupational diseases; and the formulation and execution of a national health plan, which will include the organization of the battle against cancer, heart ailments, and communicable diseases.

A national director of Public Health will be appointed by the President to hold office for six years. He must be a native-born Argentine, a doctor of medicine, and

a man of recognized experience in the field of public health and medico-social aid.

Mexico's National Museum of History

The National Museum of History of Mexico, which for some two to three years had been moving bit by bit from the cramped and over-crowded rooms of the National Museum in Mexico City to more spacious quarters in Chapultepec Castle, was formally opened to the public on September 27, 1944.

Since Chapultepec itself is a reservoir of Mexican history, the transfer of the Museum, which through its 15,000 objects speaks eloquently of the development of the Mexican nation from its earliest beginnings to the present day, synthesizes the country's history in one of its most historic places.

The exhibits have been installed and catalogued in accordance with the best museum practices, and many objects which for lack of space had been relegated almost to forgetfulness have been reincorporated into the cultural and historical life of the people.

The Museum occupies forty-eight rooms and all periods of Mexican history from pre-Conquest times to the Revolution are encompassed in the various displays. In the rooms devoted to the Conquest are portraits of Cortés, Alvarado, the Spanish sovereigns, and Spanish armor, banners, and other trappings. Portraits and mementoes of the early Spanish missionaries fill another room, while still others contain portraits of Mexico's numerous viceroys and other objects of the long colonial period. In the Hall of Independence are exhibited not only portraits of the leaders of Mexican Independence but also their battle flags, swords, and countless other personal relics. Later periods are given due prominence in other special rooms—the Reform, the Intervention and the Empire, the

Porfirio Díaz regime, and finally, the Revolution.

For the display of religious art, which flourished so abundantly in Colonial Mexico, an entire chapel was constructed within Chapultepec. The country's artistic industries—ceramics, silversmithing, wrought iron, wood carving, and others—all have their special rooms; and Mexican painting, 19th century European art, jewelry, numismatics, and printing likewise have their place.

The enormous task of putting the Museum in order was carried out by a group of specialists headed by the historian José de J. Núñez y Domínguez, Director of the Museum.

Council for Inter-American Cooperation, Inc.

In last month's issue of the BULLETIN, Raymond T. Rich described in an article entitled *Inter-American Centers in the United States*, the organization of "a permanent, private organization—non-profit and non-governmental—which will serve as a national body with which the Inter-American Centers and other groups can be affiliated, from which they can obtain counsel, and through which over-all programs can be undertaken." The formation of this council was announced in February by Joseph C. Rovensky, its president, who is also vice-president in charge of the Foreign Department of the Chase National Bank.

The Council will operate under direction of a board of trustees composed of prominent Americans, thirty-six of whom already have signified their willingness to serve with W. Randolph Burgess, vice chairman of the board of the National City Bank, as chairman. It will function throughout the country and will be sustained by contributions from private business and individuals.

Raymond T. Rich, who served as director of Inter-American Centers in the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs in Washington, will serve as director of the new Council, with temporary headquarters at 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Congress of Uruguayan women

Opened in the presence of members of the cabinet and of the diplomatic corps by a message from the famous Uruguayan poet Juana de Ibarbourou, which was broadcast through the country, Uruguay's first national congress of women met for three days last December in Montevideo. Women from city and country, working women as well as housewives and professional women, were represented at the sessions; from Montevideo alone more than fifty women's organizations sent delegations.

Señora Celia Álvarez Mouliá de Amézaga, First Lady of Uruguay, was president of the Congress. In her inaugural address to the members she laid special emphasis upon the loyalty of Uruguayan women to ideals of democracy and of Pan American solidarity, and to the cause of the United Nations. The era of rivalry between women and men, said Señora de Amézaga, has now given way to an era of collaboration between the sexes, a collaboration based upon the solid foundation of equal partnership; and she spoke with satisfaction of the support which the enfranchised women of Uruguay have given to policies of equity and moderation, thus refuting the gloomy prophecies of those who had feared that women's votes might strengthen the parties of the extreme right or the extreme left.

Greetings from the women of Chile were brought by Señora Olga Poblete de Espinoza of the Federación Chilena de Instituciones Femeninas. She reported that the congress

of women held in Santiago last October had stimulated the interest of Chilean women not only in efforts to free themselves of civil and political disabilities, but also in more vigorous activity against infant mortality and malnutrition, and in coping with some of Chile's other serious economic and political problems.

Discussions at the Montevideo meetings dealt with labor laws as they affect the working woman, with questions of women's civil rights, and with measures for the support of democracy both at home and abroad.

We see by the papers that—

- Construction was begun several months ago on a 50-mile branch of the Pan American Highway leading to Marcona, site of *Peruvian* iron ore deposits, and to San Juan, a Pacific port. Development of these deposits and of the port of San Juan, south of Lima, is closely connected with the establishment of an iron and steel industry at Chimbote, north of the capital.

- The number of cattle in *Panama* is reported to be 350,000 head, chiefly in the provinces of Chiriquí, Los Santos, Veraguas y Coclé. Chiriquí is especially well adapted to stock raising because of its fertile soil and fine pastures.

- There are 102 factories in *Brazil* making laminated wood and plywood and 66 new factories are being built for this purpose.

- La Molina Agricultural Experiment Station near Lima has selected a rust resistant variety of wheat for use in central coast valleys. The variety has been named *María Escobar* in honor of the lady who introduced wheat into *Peru* in 1540.

- A government decree in *Panama* provides for the appointment of a commission to re-

vise the program of primary and secondary education.

- Elections will be held in *Peru* on June 10, 1945. Officials to be chosen include the President, first and second Vice Presidents, 49 members of the Senate, and 153 Deputies.

- An *Ecuadorean* woman physician and two *Chilean* teachers of physical education are attached to the Juan Demóstenes Arosemena Normal School in *Panama*.

- Asunción welcomed the return in December of a distinguished native son, the harpist Felix Pérez Cardozo, who in conjunction with the Guaraní Folklore Society of Buenos Aires has done much to popularize *Paraguayan* folk music throughout the continent. The recitals given by Pérez Cardozo and his folk music group were received with the warmest enthusiasm by the public of the Paraguayan capital. At his final concert, the artist was presented with a gold medal as an expression of the appreciation of the municipality of Asunción for his contribution to the dissemination of Paraguayan culture.

Note on the cover.

Gentil Puget, writing in *This is Brazil* (Vol. 3, No. 1, 1944) says: "The popular festivals of Belém, in the state of Pará, deeply rooted in tradition, retain the strange flavor which is characteristic of the folkways of this river port on the Amazon. Here in May still can be seen the *mastros votivos*, flagpoles decorated in honor of a saint. . . ." The author mentions Saint Sebastian and the Holy Ghost as special objects of veneration in these popular festivals. The person wishing to pay tribute thus to a particular saint goes with his friends to choose a tree for the mast, which is later carried through the streets decorated

with leaves, sweet-smelling herbs, flowers, and fruits, including palm nuts, bananas, oranges, and sugar cane. The mast, with a

picture of the saint at the top, is then raised in front of the devotee's house, to the accompaniment of rejoicing and celebrations.

NECROLOGY

JOSE ANTEZANA.—Bolivian statesman and journalist. Born in Cochabamba. After receiving his law degree at the University of San Simón went into the army and became a captain at the age of 21. Abandoned his military career to go into public life. Entered the Chamber of Deputies in 1910, representing the provinces of Charcas and Bustillo. President of the Chamber, 1912; Senator for Potosí, 1914; President of the National Congress, 1918; President of the Senate, 1919. Went into exile following the revolution of 1920. In 1926 returned to

Bolivia and was named Minister to Brazil. In 1927 again elected Senator for Potosí. Action as chairman of Bolivian Delegation to Sixth Pan American Congress at Habana in 1928 won him special commendation from his government. Senator for Cochabamba, 1938. Also served as Minister of Public Education and Minister of Development. Founded and edited numerous newspapers. Served as Cojudge of the Courts of La Paz and Oruro. Was a member of the bar in Argentina and Brazil. Died in La Paz on September 29, 1944.

The BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION asks the indulgence of its readers when it arrives late. Delays are incident to wartime printing and transportation

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its

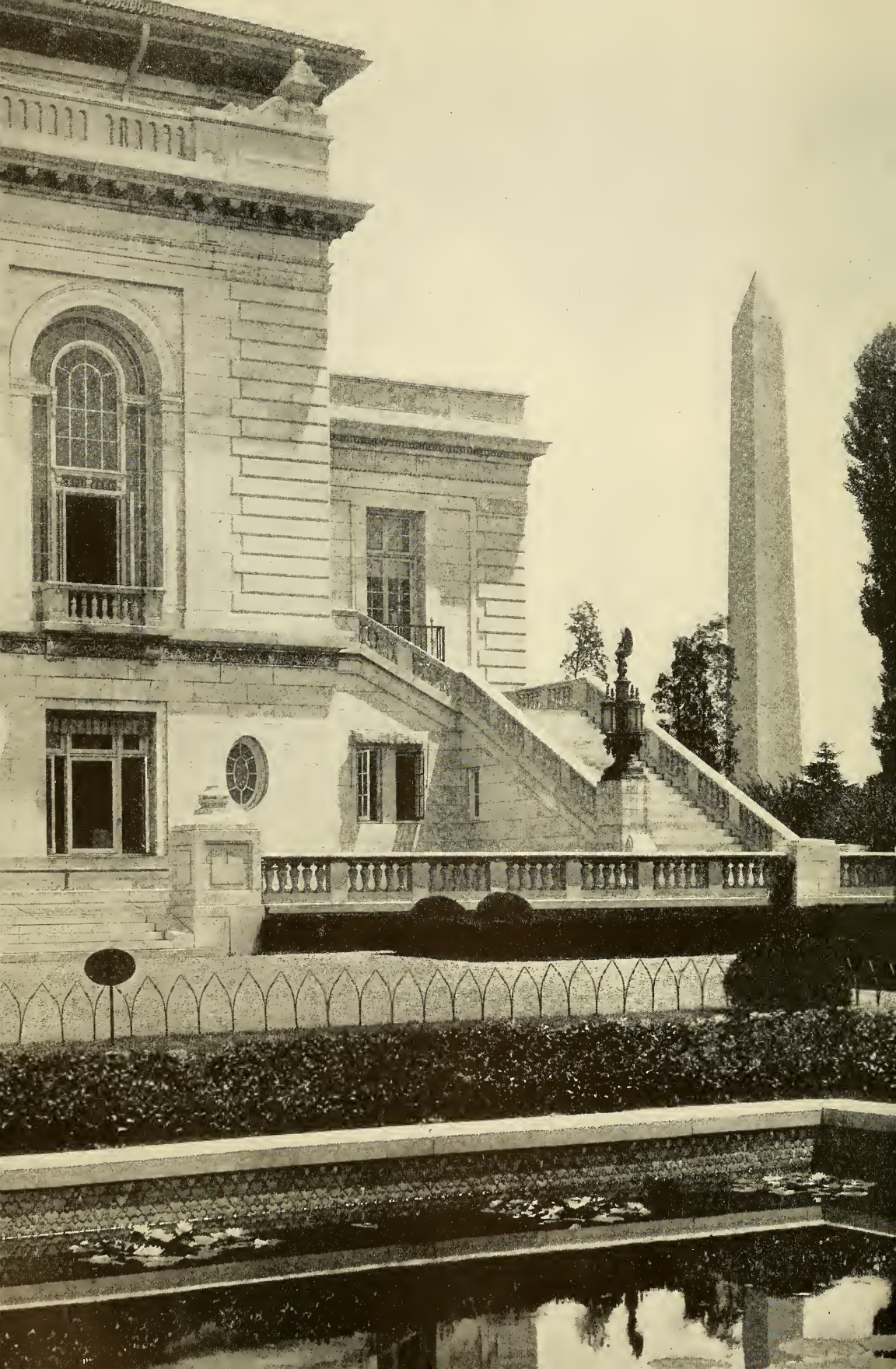
affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: WASHINGTON MONUMENT FROM THE GARDENS
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PRESIDENT ÁVILA CAMACHO OF MEXICO ADDRESSING THE OPENING SESSION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON PROBLEMS OF WAR AND PEACE.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 5



MAY 1945

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace Mexico City, February 21-March 8, 1945

L. S. ROWE

Director General of the Pan American Union

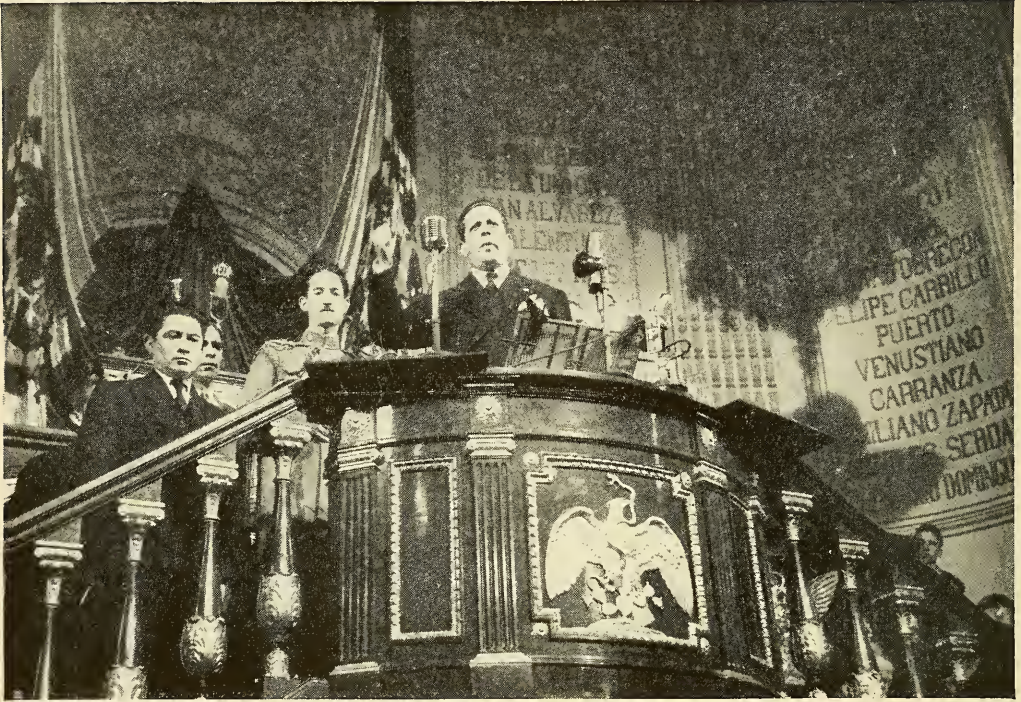
ON the afternoon of Wednesday, February 21, in the great hall of the Mexican Chamber of Deputies, the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace held its opening session. President Manuel Ávila Camacho of Mexico delivered an impressive address of welcome, in which he spoke especially of the part that America will play in the postwar world and the important contributions this continent can make. A reply was made on behalf of all the delegates by Dr. Caracciolo Parra Pérez, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela and chief of his country's delegation, stressing the duties of the American countries to the world at

large as well as to themselves. The following day, at a second plenary session, Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Mexico and President of the Conference, addressed the delegates eloquently, placing special emphasis on the action that the Conference should take to improve the condition of the masses of the people.

The nations of the Americas looked to this Conference not only to strengthen the spirit of cooperation amongst the Republics of America, but also to provide for the safety and security of the Western Hemisphere. It is gratifying to record that the results of this momentous meeting have fully met these expectations.

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace ranks as the most significant meeting held by the American

This article is intended to cover the highlights of the Conference. A more detailed report will be submitted to the Governing Board by the Director General.—EDITOR.



Press Association Inc.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE CONFERENCE

Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Mexico and President of the Conference, spoke before the second plenary session.

Republics since the First Conference at Panama in 1826. Its deep significance is due not only to the importance of the topics included in the agenda, but also to the fact that, since the Conference met at one of the most critical periods in the world's history, upon its decisions depend in large measure the future safety and welfare of the American nations. Upon it devolved the responsibility of providing for the future security of the American continent in a war-torn world, and also of meeting the difficult and delicate problems that the Republics of America will be compelled to face in making the transition from a war economy to a peace economy. To solve these problems the Governments of the American Republics sent to Mexico their most distinguished statesmen, including not only the Ministers of Foreign Af-

fairs of the respective countries but also outstanding leaders in political and economic life. Furthermore, the Conference met in an atmosphere of good will, mutual confidence, and cooperation which contributed much to the solution of the most difficult problems. The constructive results of the Conference may be summarized as follows:

1. The adoption of measures tending to assure the present and future security of the American Republics against aggression.
2. The broadening of the activities of the Pan American Union, including changes in its organization.
3. Action to safeguard the economic structure of the American Republics in the transition from a war to a peace economy.
4. Action with reference to the Argentine Republic.

The measures adopted to assure the security of the American Republics, which will no doubt be regarded as the outstanding achievement, are embodied in an instrument to which the designation *Act of Chapultepec* was given. Under the provisions of the Act not only will aggression against an American State by a non-American power be regarded as an act of aggression against all the republics, but what is equally important, any act of aggression of one American State against another is placed in the same category and will give rise to immediate action by the other American Republics to repel such aggression.

At the suggestion of the United States Delegation the period covering such united action is divided into two parts. Until the close of the war, the American Republics will take action under the war powers of their respective governments. For the post-war period, provision is made for the negotiation of a treaty under which such united action will be taken. The purpose of this modification was to safeguard the constitutional prerogatives of the Senate of the United States with reference to the use of military force.

In order that the procedure envisaged by the Act of Chapultepec may be integrated with the world organization contemplated by the San Francisco Conference, it was provided that action taken by the American Republics should be exercised in harmony with the procedure that may be established for the maintenance of world peace.¹

Of almost equal significance was the adoption of the proposal of the Mexican Delegation that the Conference designated *The Declaration of Mexico*. This instrument reaffirms the juridical equality of the American Republics, prohibiting any interference in the internal affairs of one State by another;

asserts the inviolability of the territory of the American States; and emphasizes that any aggression against any American State constitutes an aggression against all of them. The Declaration also stresses the necessity of coordinating all interests to create an economy of abundance in which natural resources and human labor will be employed to raise the standard of living of the people of the respective American nations.²

As regards the functions and organization of the Pan American Union, the Conference made a number of important changes.³ In the first place, the time-worn distinction between political and non-political functions was abolished, and the Conference placed under the jurisdiction of the Pan American Union "every matter that affects the effective functioning of the Inter-American System and the solidarity and general welfare of the American Republics." The authority of the Union in these matters was made subject to the limitations imposed by the International Conferences of American States and the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

The most important change in the organization of the Pan American Union is in the constitution of the Governing Board. Heretofore, the Board has been made up of the diplomatic representatives of the respective Latin American countries accredited to the Government of the United States, together with the Secretary of State of the United States. Under the provision of the Mexico City resolution the members of the Governing Board will, after November next, be representatives *ad hoc*; in other words, special representatives with the rank of Ambassador appointed by each of the American

¹ *The text of the Declaration of Mexico is reproduced in the appendix, p. 256.*

² *The text of the resolution on the Reorganization, Consolidation, and Strengthening of the Inter-American System is reproduced in the appendix, p. 257.*

³ *The text of the Act of Chapultepec is reproduced in the appendix to this article, p. 254.*

Republics will give full time to the work of the Pan American Union. The resolution specifically prohibits the appointment of members of the diplomatic missions at Washington as members of the Governing Board. It should be noted in this connection that ever since the Habana Conference of 1928, the governments have been free to appoint such special representatives, but have not availed themselves of this privilege.

An Inter-American Economic and Social Council was also established under the immediate direction of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. This Council is given far-reaching powers in furthering united action by the American Republics in the solution of economic and social problems and in furnishing information looking toward a higher standard of living for the masses of the people, a vital necessity that the delegates had constantly in mind. This all-pervading purpose expressed itself in a number of resolutions adopted by the Conference.

In addition to the above-mentioned innovations, the resolution relating to the Pan American Union indicates a distinct tendency to make the Union the coordinating organ for the activities of the many inter-American organizations established from time to time by the Pan American Conferences. Duplication of effort will thus be avoided.

With respect to the measures intended to safeguard the economic structure of the American Republics, it was evident at the outset of the Conference that this matter was uppermost in the minds of all the delegates. Practically every Latin American delegation laid emphasis on the fact that a sudden reduction in the purchase of raw materials by the United States would have a disastrous effect upon its economic structure, resulting in widespread unemployment and consequent political unrest. The Economic Charter adopted by the Conference was intended as

a first step toward avoiding these dangers. While the terms of this Charter are general in character, the delegation of the United States gave assurance that every possible effort consistent with the basic interests of the United States would be made to avoid a sudden decline in the purchase of raw materials. The general principles contained in the Charter will have to be implemented by more specific and concrete measures, but the assurances given by the United States served to allay the most serious apprehensions.

With reference to the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals the Conference contented itself with reaffirming the desire of the American Republics to cooperate in the organization of a world system for the maintenance of peace. It was also decided to forward to the San Francisco Conference as well as to all the nations participating therein a copy of the specific amendments proposed by the respective American governments. The resolution made it clear that the American Republics desire:

1. To amplify and make more specific the powers of the General Assembly.
2. To extend the jurisdiction and competence of the international tribunal or court of justice.
3. To create an international agency specifically charged with promoting intellectual and moral cooperation between nations.
4. To solve controversies and questions of an inter-American character preferably in accordance with inter-American methods and procedures, but always in harmony with those of the General International Organization.
5. To have an adequate representation given to Latin America on the Security Council.

Mention should also be made of the fact that the Conference devoted much attention to the social problems confronting the American Republics, especially those con-



CHAPULTEPEC CASTLE

The scene of the Conference committee meetings.

nected with the welfare of women and children. In addition to the establishment of the Inter-American Economic and Social Council as an integral part of the Pan American Union, provision was made for the preparation of a basic charter on the protection of women and children to be submitted either to an International Conference of American States or to a meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics.

Finally, on the closing day of the Conference the Steering Committee or, as it was known, the Committee on Initiatives, made up of the respective Chairmen of the twenty delegations, squarely faced the situation created by the request of the Argentine Government for a meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics. Action on this request had been postponed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union in view of the approaching meeting at Mexico City. Although the Committee

on Initiatives did not take definite action until the closing day of the Conference, an informal interchange of views had been in progress for a number of days.

The resolution as finally adopted approached the situation in a most friendly spirit, expressing the earnest desire of the American Republics "that the Argentine Nation will cooperate with the other American Nations, identifying itself with the common policy which these nations are pursuing, and orienting its own policy so that it may achieve its incorporation into the United Nations as a signatory to the Joint Declaration entered into by them."

It was also provided that the Final Act of the Conference be "open to adherence by the Argentine Nation, always in accordance with the criteria of this resolution."

It is gratifying to add that on March 28 the Argentine Government notified the Pan American Union that a decree had been is-

sued under date of March 27 by which it adhered to the Final Act of the Mexico City Conference and declared war on Japan and Germany. The Mexico City resolution recognized that the unity of America is indivisible and that the Argentine Nation is and always has been an integral part of the union of American Republics. That resolution, and the corresponding action of the Argentine Government, constitute a definite step in reestablishing the complete unity and solidarity of the Continent. The united front of the Western World against aggression is thus assured.

Viewed as a whole, from the standpoint of the concrete results attained and of the remarkable spirit of unity and solidarity that dominated the proceedings, the Mexico City

Conference is the most important step forward that has been taken in strengthening the political and economic ties binding the American Republics to one another. In fact, this unity of purpose and policy was one of the most inspiring aspects of the meeting. It would be difficult to find another instance in the history of international relations in which all the nations represented labored with such singleness of purpose for the common good rather than for individual advantage. Deeply significant as were the results of the Conference in the political, economic, and social fields, they were even more significant by reason of the united front presented by the nations of the Americas in safeguarding their institutions, their prosperity, and their national welfare.

APPENDIX

ACT OF CHAPULTEPEC

WHEREAS:

The peoples of the Americas, animated by a profound love of justice, remain sincerely devoted to the principles of international law;

It is their desire that such principles, notwithstanding the present difficult circumstances, prevail with even greater force in future international relations;

The inter-American Conferences have repeatedly proclaimed certain fundamental principles, but these must be reaffirmed at a time when the juridical bases of the community of nations are being re-established;

The new situation in the world makes more imperative than ever the union and solidarity of the American peoples, for the defense of their rights and the maintenance of international peace;

The American States have been incorporating in their international law, since 1890, by means of conventions, resolutions and declarations, the following principles:

a) The proscription of territorial conquest and the non-recognition of all acquisitions made by force (First International Conference of American States, 1890);

b) The condemnation of intervention by one State in the internal or external affairs of another (Seventh International Conference of American States, 1933, and Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, 1936);

c) The recognition that every war or threat of war affects directly or indirectly all civilized peoples, and endangers the great principles of liberty and justice which constitute the American ideal and the standard of American international policy (Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, 1936);

d) The system of mutual consultation in order to find means of peaceful cooperation in the event of war or threat of war between American countries (Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, 1936);

e) The recognition that every act susceptible of disturbing the peace of America affects each and every one of the American nations and justifies the initiation of the procedure of consultation (Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, 1936);

f) The adoption of conciliation, unrestricted arbitration, or the application of international justice, in the solution of any dif-

ference or dispute between American nations, whatever its nature or origin (Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, 1936);

g) The recognition that respect for the personality, sovereignty and independence of each American State constitutes the essence of international order sustained by continental solidarity, which historically has been expressed and sustained by declarations and treaties in force (Eighth International Conference of American States, 1938);

h) The reaffirmation that respect for and the faithful observance of treaties constitute the indispensable rule for the development of peaceful relations between States, and that treaties can only be revised by agreement of the contracting parties (Declaration of American Principles, Eighth International Conference of American States, 1938);

i) The proclamation that in case the peace, security or territorial integrity of any American republic is threatened by acts of any nature that may impair them, they proclaim their common concern and their determination to make effective their solidarity, coordinating their respective sovereign wills by means of the procedure of consultation, using the measures which in each case the circumstances may make advisable (Declaration of Lima, Eighth International Conference of American States, 1938);

j) The declaration that any attempt on the part of a non-American State against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty or the political independence of an American State shall be considered as an act of aggression against all the American States (Declaration XV of the Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Habana, 1940);

The furtherance of these principles, which the American States have constantly practised in order to assure peace and solidarity among the nations of the Continent constitutes an effective means of contributing to the general system of world security and of facilitating its establishment;

The security and solidarity of the Continent are affected to the same extent by an act of aggression against any of the American States by a non-American State, as by an act of aggression of an American State against one or more American States;

Part I

The Governments represented at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

DECLARE:

1. That all sovereign States are juridically equal amongst themselves.

2. That every State has the right to the respect of its individuality and independence, on the part of the other members of the international community.

3. That every attack of one State against the integrity or the inviolability of the territory, or against the sovereignty or political independence of an American State, shall, conformably to Part III hereof, be considered as an act of aggression against the other States which sign this Act. In any case invasion by armed forces of one State into the territory of another trespassing boundaries established by treaty and demarcated in accordance therewith shall constitute an act of aggression.

4. That in case acts of aggression occur or there are reasons to believe that an aggression is being prepared by any other State against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, or against the sovereignty or political independence of an American State, the States signatory to this Act will consult among themselves in order to agree upon the measures it may be advisable to take.

5. That during the war, and until the treaty recommended in Part II hereof is concluded, the signatories of this Act recognize that such threats and acts of aggression, as indicated in paragraphs 3 and 4 above, constitute an interference with the war effort of the United Nations, calling for such procedures, within the scope of their constitutional powers of a general nature and for war, as may be found necessary, including: recall of chiefs of diplomatic missions; breaking of diplomatic relations; breaking of consular relations; breaking of postal, telegraphic, telephonic, radio-telephonic relations; interruption of economic, commercial and financial relations; use of armed force to prevent or repel aggression.

6. That the principles and procedure contained in this Declaration shall become effective immediately, inasmuch as any act of aggression or threat of aggression during the present state of war interferes with the war effort of the United Nations to obtain victory. Henceforth, and to the end that the principles and procedures herein stipulated shall conform with the constitutional processes of each Republic, the respective Govern-

ments shall take the necessary steps to perfect this instrument in order that it shall be in force at all times.

Part II

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RECOMMENDS:

That for the purpose of meeting threats or acts of aggression against any American Republic following the establishment of peace, the Governments of the American Republics consider the conclusion, in accordance with their constitutional processes, of a treaty establishing procedures whereby such threats or acts may be met by the use, by all or some of the signatories of said treaty, of any one or more of the following measures: recall of chiefs of diplomatic missions; breaking of diplomatic relations; breaking of consular relations; breaking of postal, telegraphic, telephonic, radio-telephonic relations; interruption of economic, commercial and financial relations; use of armed force to prevent or repel aggression.

Part III

The above Declaration and Recommendation constitute a regional arrangement for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action in this Hemisphere. The said arrangement, and the pertinent activities and procedures, shall be consistent with the purposes and principles of the general international organization, when established.

This agreement shall be known as the "Act of Chapultepec."

(Approved at the plenary session of March 6, 1945)

DECLARATION OF MEXICO

The States of America, through their Plenipotentiary Delegates meeting at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

DECLARE:

The American community maintains the following essential principles as governing the relations among the States composing it:

1. International Law is the rule of conduct for all States.

2. States are juridically equal.

3. Each State is free and sovereign, and no State may intervene in the internal or external affairs of another.

4. The territory of the American States is inviolable and also immutable, except in the case of peaceful agreement.

5. The American States do not recognize the validity of territorial conquests.

6. The mission of the American States is the preservation of peace and the maintenance of the best possible relations with all States.

7. Conflicts between States are to be settled exclusively by peaceful means.

8. War of aggression in any of its forms is outlawed.

9. An aggression against an American State constitutes an aggression against all American States.

10. The American States are united in their aspirations and common interests.

11. The American States reiterate their fervent adherence to democratic principles, which they consider essential for the peace of America.

12. The purpose of the State is the happiness of man in society. The interests of the community should be harmonized with the rights of the individual. The American man cannot conceive of living without justice, just as he cannot conceive of living without liberty.

13. Among the rights of man, the first is equality of opportunity to enjoy all the spiritual and material blessings offered by civilization, through the legitimate exercise of his activity, his industry, and his ingenuity.

14. Education and material well-being are indispensable to the development of democracy.

15. Economic cooperation is essential to the common prosperity of the American Nations. Want among any of their peoples, whether in the form of poverty, malnutrition, or ill health, affects each one of them and consequently all of them jointly.

16. The American States consider as necessary the equitable coordination of all interests to create an economy of abundance in which natural resources and human labor will be utilized to raise the standard of living of all the peoples of the Continent.

17. The inter-American community is dedicated to the ideals of universal cooperation.

(Approved at the plenary session of March 6, 1945)

REORGANIZATION, CONSOLIDATION, AND STRENGTHENING OF THE INTER- AMERICAN SYSTEM

WHEREAS:

The inter-American system, and the principles, instruments, agencies, and procedures that give it substance, constitute the living manifestation of the determination of the sovereign American Republics to act together for the fulfillment of their common purposes in the maintenance of peace and security and in the promotion of the well-being of their peoples;

The inter-American system is and has traditionally been inspired by a deep sense of universal cooperation;

The inter-American system, as an expression of the common ideals, the needs, and the will of the community of American Republics, should be further improved and strengthened for the purpose of adjusting and solving inter-American problems;

The inter-American system should, furthermore, maintain the closest relations with the proposed general international organization and assume the appropriate responsibilities in harmony with the principles and purposes of the general international organization,

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RESOLVES:

1. That the International Conferences of American States shall meet ordinarily at four-year intervals and shall be the inter-American organ entrusted with the formulation of general inter-American policy and the determination of the structure and the functions of inter-American instruments and agencies. The next Conference shall meet in Bogotá in 1946.

2. The regular Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs shall be held annually upon special call by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, unless there should be held in the same year an International Conference of American States pursuant to the preceding article. The next regular Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs shall be held in 1947.

The Meetings shall be charged with taking decisions on problems of great urgency and importance concerning the inter-American system and with regard to situations and disputes of every kind which may disturb the peace of the American Republics.

If, under exceptional circumstances, a Minister

of Foreign Affairs should be unable to attend, he may be represented by a special delegate.

3. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall be composed of one *ad hoc* delegate designated by each of the American Republics, which delegates shall have the rank of Ambassadors and shall enjoy the corresponding privileges and immunities, but shall not be part of the diplomatic mission accredited to the government of the country in which the Pan American Union has its seat. This provision shall take effect at the expiration of the present period of sessions of the existing Board.

4. In addition to its present functions the Governing Board of the Pan American Union

a) Shall take action, within the limitations imposed upon it by the International Conferences of American States or pursuant to the specific direction of the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs on every matter that affects the effective functioning of the Inter-American system and the solidarity and general welfare of the American Republics;

b) Shall call the regular Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs provided for in Paragraph 1 of Article 2 hereof, and special meetings, when they are requested, to consider exclusively emergency questions. In the latter case the call shall be made upon the vote of an absolute majority of the Board;

c) Shall supervise the inter-American agencies which are or may become related to the Pan American Union, and shall receive and approve annual or special reports from these agencies.

5. The Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall be elected annually and shall not be eligible for re-election for the term immediately following.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall meet at least once each week.

The seat of the Pan American Union and of the Governing Board shall continue to be in Washington.

The Director General of the Pan American Union shall be chosen by the Governing Board for a term of ten years; he shall not be eligible for re-election, nor can he be succeeded by a person of the same nationality.

In the event of a vacancy in the office of Director General of the Pan American Union, a successor shall be appointed who shall hold office until the end of the term and who may be reelected

if the vacancy occurs during the second half of the term.

• The first term shall begin on January 1, 1955.

The appointment and replacement of the Assistant Director shall be made in accordance with the above rules, except that the first term shall begin on January 1, 1960.

It is understood that the Governing Board may at any time, by vote of fifteen of its members, remove the Director General or the Assistant Director, on grounds relating to the efficiency of the organization.

6. Until the Ninth International Conference of Inter-American States, in accordance with the procedure provided hereinafter, creates or confirms the various agencies of the inter-American system, the following agencies created by the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs shall continue to function: The Inter-American Juridical Committee, the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense, and the Inter-American Defense Board.

7. In place of the emergency agency now functioning as the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, there is hereby created a permanent Inter-American Economic and Social Council subsidiary to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union the members of which shall be designated by the respective Governments, and which shall be empowered:

a) To carry out recommendations of the International Conferences of American States;

b) To serve as the coordinating agency for all official inter-American economic and social activities;

c) To promote social progress and the raising of the standard of living for all the American peoples;

d) To undertake studies and other activities upon its own initiative or upon the request of any American government;

e) To collect and prepare reports on economic and social matters for the use of the American Republics;

f) To maintain liaison with the corresponding agency of the general international organization when established and with existing or projected international economic and social agencies.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union is authorized to organize provisionally the Inter-American Economic and Social Council. The permanent organization shall be established by the Ninth International Conference of American States.

8. The Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union shall be maintained for the purpose of strengthening by all means at its command the spiritual bonds between the American nations.

9. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, availing itself of all American agencies it deems appropriate, is charged with preparing, beginning May 1, 1945, a draft charter for the improvement and strengthening of the Pan American system. The Governing Board shall submit the draft to the Governments of the continent prior to December 31, 1945.

The draft charter shall first of all proclaim:

The recognition by all the American Republics of international law as the effective rule of their conduct, and the pledge of those Governments to observe the standards enunciated in a "Declaration of the Rights and Duties of States" and a "Declaration of the International Rights and Duties of Man"; these shall serve as the definition of the fundamental principles of international law and shall appear as an annex to the charter, so that, without amending it, the declarations may be revised from time to time to adapt them to the requirements and aspirations of international life.

For the preparation of the first Declaration, the principles already incorporated into the juridical heritage of the inter-American system shall be coordinated, especially those contained in the "Convention on the Rights and Duties of States" approved at the Seventh International Conference of American States; in the "Declaration of Principles of Inter-American Solidarity and Cooperation" adopted at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace; in the "Declaration of the Principles of the Solidarity of America" and the "Declaration of American Principles" adopted at the Eighth International Conference of American States; in the "Declaration on the Maintenance of International Activities in Accordance with Christian Morality" and the declaration relative to "Reciprocal Assistance and Cooperation for the Defense of the Nations of the Americas" approved at the First and Second Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, respectively; and in the Declarations on "Continental Solidarity in Observance of Treaties" and "The Good Neighbor Policy," adopted at the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs. The draft declaration on "Reaffirmation of Fundamental Principles of International Law" prepared by the Inter-American Juridical Committee, and any Declaration of Principles that may be adopted by this Conference,

shall also be taken into account.

In regard to the second Declaration mentioned above, the text shall be that formulated by the Inter-American Juridical Committee in fulfillment of the request contained in another resolution of the present Conference.

It is the desire of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace that there shall be taken into account the Inter-American Commission of Women, which for sixteen years has rendered eminent services to the cause of America and humanity, and that it be included among the organizations which form the Pan American Union, with the same prerogatives and position that have been accorded to other inter-American institutions of a permanent or emergency character that have functioned within or without the Pan American Union.

10. The draft charter shall provide for the strengthening of the inter-American system on the bases of this resolution and by the creation of new agencies or the elimination or adaptation of existing agencies, specifying and coordinating

their functions as among themselves and with the world organization.

The draft shall take into account the need of accelerating the consolidation and extension of existing inter-American peace instruments and the simplification and improvement of the inter-American peace structure, and to this end the Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall utilize the services of the Inter-American Juridical Committee. In addition, the draft shall provide for the consolidation and simplification of all other inter-American instruments so that they may be more effective.

11. The American Governments shall send to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union prior to September 1, 1945, all their proposals relating to the preceding articles.

12. The draft charter shall also provide for the establishment of an equitable system for the financial support of the Pan American Union and of all its related agencies.

(Approved at the plenary session of March 6, 1945)



Adherence of Argentina to the Final Act of the Mexico City Conference

THE following documents relate to the adherence of Argentina to the Final Act of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace:

LETTER OF CONFERENCE PRESIDENT

Dr. L. S. ROWE

*Director General, Pan American Union
Washington, D. C.*

Mr. DIRECTOR GENERAL:

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace adopted Resolution No. 59, a certified copy of which I have the pleasure of enclosing in accordance with paragraph 6, which says:

"To declare that the Final Act of this Conference shall be open to adherence by the Argentine Nation, in accordance with the criterion of this resolution, and to authorize His Excellency Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, President of the Conference, to communicate the resolutions of this assembly to the Argentine Government through the Pan American Union."

In order that the Pan American Union may carry out the duty entrusted to it by the Conference, I have pleasure in sending you two copies of the Final Act.

Permit me to thank you for your attention to this request and to repeat the assurances of my distinguished consideration.

Mexico, D. F., March 8, 1945.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE CONFERENCE

(Signed) E. PADILLA

ARGENTINE NOTE AND DECREE

EMBASSY OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

Washington, March 28, 1945

U. P. No. 10

Mr. DIRECTOR GENERAL:

With reference to the communication of His Excellency, Señor Don Ezequiel Padilla, President of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, received through the Pan American Union with a note of the Director General dated March 14, I am pleased to inform you:

First: That the Government of the Argentine Republic accepts the invitation extended to it by the twenty American Republics that participated in the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, and adheres to the Final Act of the Conference;

Second: That in order to identify the policy of the Nation with the common policy of the other American nations and associate itself with them against threats or acts of aggression of any country against any American State, the Government of the Nation yesterday declared a state of war between the Argentine Republic on the one hand and the Empire of Japan and Germany on the other;

Third: That in accordance with the position adopted, there shall be taken immediately all emergency measures incident to the state of

belligerency, as well as those that may be necessary to prevent and repress activities that may endanger the war effort of the United Nations or threaten the peace, welfare, or security of the American Nations.

For appropriate action I transmit herewith the text of the decree issued by the Executive Power which pertains to the above-mentioned measures.

I beg to remain, Mr. Director General, with assurances of my highest consideration,

(S) RODOLFO GARCÍA ARIAS

DECREE NO. 6945/45

Buenos Aires, March 27, 1945

In view of the communication of the Director General of the Pan American Union enclosing a copy of the Final Act of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace held at Mexico City, and a certified copy of Resolution LIX, approved March 7, 1945, by the twenty American States that participated in the aforementioned Conference, and considering:

That Article 6 of said resolution referring to our country states that the Final Act is open to the adherence of the Argentine Republic and authorizes the President of the Conference so to inform the Government of the Argentine Republic through the Pan American Union;

That said resolution recognizes that the unity of the peoples of America is indivisible, and rightly affirms that the Argentine Republic is and always has been an integral part of the Union of the American Republics, and that it likewise considers that complete solidarity and a common policy among the American States in the event of threats or acts of aggression by any State against an American State are essential to the peace and security of the Continent;

That the Government of the Republic,

pursuant to the established foreign policy of the Argentine Republic, reaffirmed its opposition to aggression and its solidarity with its sister nations by means of the declarations of the Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs and Worship on March 7 of the present year, in which he referred especially to previous declarations of this Government based on Argentine tradition and policy;

That the preamble of the Act of Chapultepec and the principles it enumerates as incorporated in the international law of our Continent since 1890 have at all times guided the foreign policy of the Nation and coincide with the principles of Argentine international policy;

That the Argentine Republic has always collaborated with the American States in all action tending to unite the peoples of the Continent; that this traditional policy of generations of Argentines from the early days of our independence has been inspired by a sentiment of true and effective Americanism, a consequence of the injunctions of the noble principles that have always regulated our international life, manifested and proclaimed by the Argentine Republic in Pan American conferences, incorporated in numerous laws, reflected in the work of the Pan American Union, and put into effect with disinterested effort;

That in view of the unanimous gesture of the sister nations that attended the Mexico City Conference, the Government of the Nation, animated by the highest ideals of Continental solidarity, the guiding principle of our international policy, cannot remain indifferent, in view of the elevated spirit of American confraternity;

That Japan attacked the United States at Pearl Harbor, as was recognized officially by the Argentine Government in a decree of December 9, 1941, declaring the United States, upon which Germany later declared war, a non-belligerent; that new aggressions

on the part of Japan against any American nation are not impossible; that neighboring and friendly countries are now in a state of belligerency with the Empire of Japan and thus exposed to possible attack by the latter;

That in view of this situation, and new events that have occurred, the Government of the Nation, pursuant to its tradition of American solidarity, proposes once again to unify its policy with the common policy of the other States of the Continent in order to occupy the place that corresponds to it and to share the responsibilities that may devolve upon it;

That the Government of the Nation accepts and finds itself prepared to put into effect the principles, declarations and recommendations of the Mexico City Conference; that the provisions of Article 67, Section 21, and Article 86, Section 18, of the National Constitution and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the Nation authorize the taking of the measures consequent upon the acceptance by the Government of the Republic of the invitation of our sister nations; that in order to adopt such measures the Executive Power in the present circumstances considered it desirable to consult public opinion that would assure a knowledge of the popular will;

The President of the Argentine Nation
In a General Agreement with the Ministers

DECREES:

ARTICLE 1. The Government of the Nation accepts the invitation extended by the twenty American Republics participating in the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, and adheres to the Final Act of that Conference.

ARTICLE 2. In order to identify the policy of the Nation with that of the other American Republics and associate itself with them against threats or acts of aggression of any country against an American State, there

is declared a state of war between the Argentine Republic on the one hand and the Empire of Japan on the other.

ARTICLE 3. There is likewise declared a state of war between the Argentine Republic and Germany, in view of the fact that the latter is an ally of Japan.

ARTICLE 4. Through the respective Ministries and government Departments, there shall be adopted immediately the measures necessary for a state of belligerency, as well as those required to put to a definite end all activity of persons, firms and enterprises, of whatever nationality, that might endanger the security of the State or interfere with the war effort of the United Nations or threaten the peace, welfare, and security of the American Nations.

ARTICLE 5. This decree shall be communicated, published, listed in the National Register, and filed.

(Signed) EDELMIRO J. FARRELL
(Countersigned) CÉSAR AMEGHINO
ALBERTO TEISAIRE
JUAN D. PERÓN
AMARO AVALOS
JUAN PISTARINI
BARTOLOMÉ DE LA COLINA
JULIO C. CHECCHI

RESOLUTION OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has noted with satisfaction the measures adopted by the Argentine Government, referred to in the communication directed to Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of this institution, by said Government under date of March 28, 1945, as well as those subsequently taken by said government. The Board believes that these measures are in accordance with the cri-

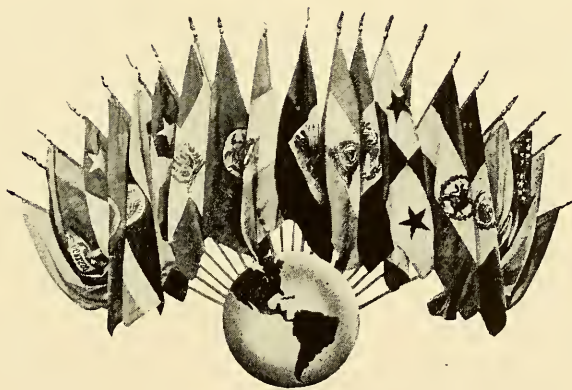
teria of Resolution 59 of the Conference of Mexico and, consequently, resolves to request the Director General of the Pan American Union to transmit the above-mentioned communication of the Argentine Government, together with a copy of this resolution, to the President of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, His Excellency Ezequiel Padilla, with a view to the signature by Argentina

of the Final Act of the Conference of Mexico.

(March 31, 1945.)

SIGNATURE

To conclude the matter, Señor Adolfo N. Calvo, the representative of Argentina in Mexico City, signed the Final Act on behalf of his government April 4, 1945, in the Mexican Ministry of Foreign Affairs.





JOSÉ MARTÍ

Martí and His Pilgrimage

Tribute on the Fiftieth Anniversary of his Death

PEDRO DE ALBA

Assistant Director of the Pan American Union

I. Biographical notes

JOSÉ MARTÍ was born in Habana, Cuba, January 28, 1853. Don Mariano Martí, his father, came from Valencia in Spain. His mother, Doña Leonor Pérez, was the daughter of Spaniards who had gone to Cuba from the island of Tenerife. José passed his childhood and youth in Cuba, where he was an eager student in both elementary and secondary schools. His environment, teachers, schoolmates, and friends all helped to arouse his devotion to the cause of liberty.

When Martí was seventeen he was imprisoned for political reasons, an occurrence which made a lasting impression. The scars left on body and mind by his fetters were the stigmata of the martyr. After he was released he was deported to Spain; exile strengthened his character and showed him new paths to follow. At the age of twenty he received his degrees in law and in philosophy and letters at the University of Zaragoza, the capital of the ancient kingdom of Aragon.

Returning to America, he began his pilgrimage through various countries. First he stayed in Mexico for several years and later visited Guatemala; he tried to settle in Habana with the idea of practising law; he was again deported to Spain, whence he fled to America. Venezuela, Mexico again, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, all knew him; and New York was his headquarters for a decade.

All these years outside his country he devoted to his apostleship. He was a journalist; he taught in evening schools for workers and in private schools and universities; he undertook technical and consular missions for various Spanish American republics. The purpose of whatever he did and whatever he said was to promote the cause of Cuban freedom. He left disciples, friends, admirers, and fellow patriots everywhere he went. Workers, politicians, and men of letters alike reverently called him master.

He made a journey to Costa Rica in the course of a campaign to unify the Cuban patriots. He returned to the United States and then to the Dominican Republic, from which he set sail for Cuba. He died fighting for the freedom of his country at Boca de Dos Ríos, May 19, 1895.

Martí had in his spirit the sensitiveness of his native country and a filial fondness for the islands and mainland of Spain. In his youth he was favored by the paternal affection of Rafael María de Mendive, his teacher, and the brotherly friendship of Fermín Valdés Domínguez. They spurred him on in his intellectual development, helped him in financial straits, soothed his distress of mind, and planted in his soul the seeds of nobility and generosity. Martí's remarkable gift of universal sympathy reached out to the human beings within his ken, to the countries belonging to him by birth and blood, and to the other lands that he came to know.

He could distinguish between the two Spains: the Spain of Bartolomé de las Casas and that of Philip II; the Spain of light and the Spain of darkness. For the one he had the gratitude of a son; for the other, the holy wrath of the liberator. His tribute to the hospitable province of Aragon was poured out in lasting verses written with deep feeling and beauty.

Aragon indeed had a profound influence on Martí's life. It might be said that three illustrious sons of that province were a perennial example and inspiration to him. From Baltasar Gracián, Martí took his literary style, his liking for philosophic essays and for commentaries on ethics and politics; from Francisco de Goya, kindness towards the humble, and the penetration that unveiled men's souls; from his contemporary Joaquín Costa, his love for agriculture, his friendliness for rural workers, and his uncompromising repugnance to the evils of politics or expedient dissimulation.

Martí was a firm champion of whatever was good in Spanish and American thought. While he was upholding the cause of Cuban liberty, he also demanded the regeneration of the mother country. From this combination of feelings came his fervent discourse on Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, full of his distress over the past and present errors of Spain and the sufferings of the Indians.

Martí was above all an American. His Cubanism, shown by deed and word in the daily strife, and by his admiration for the great figures of José María de Heredia, José de la Luz Caballero, and Juan Clemente Zenea, expands and becomes true Americanism in his veneration for Hidalgo and Bolívar, in his tribute to Cecilio Acosta, in his praise of Emerson and Walt Whitman.

Martí was a man who infused new life into political struggles and into literary forms. He was an artist in words, whether

used in essay, poetry, or journalism, from the professorial chair, on the orator's rostrum, or in the forum of civic discussion.

Exile, persecution, and prison did not make him bitter or resentful. He never lost faith in the Cause which he defended, in the inherent virtue of human nature, or in his conviction that better times would come for the Americas.

He had great physical resistance and capacity for work, inexhaustible intellectual energy, and a broad and solid culture. It is amazing that in a short life he should have had time to go deeply into so many complex and diverse subjects, which he discussed in a masterly way, but he had a faculty of divination, of intuition—the genius of the seer. He would not have permitted anyone to treat him like a superman. He lived and died for the cause of human dignity, of concord among his fellow men, of a better life for the lowly.

He was hero, martyr, poet, the greatest symbol in the history of Cuba and the epic story of America, an exemplar of all that counts most.

II. Pilgrimage

It would be a moving and instructive lesson to trace Martí's travels on the map of America. One might mark with red dots the places where he had been; the student would be astonished. Martí's path led like a fiery way to the consummation of his destiny. Desert sands and spring waters were dyed with the blood of his footsteps.

For Martí physical fatigue and money difficulties had no importance. He was protected against them by his inner light and his concern with the immortal. He went over mountains, valleys, and oceans like a man predestined by fate. He fought poverty, indifference, and solitude. Bearing one of the

heaviest burdens that a man can know, he went in lengthy forced journeys from Venezuela to Central America, from Mexico to the shores of the Hudson, from one Caribbean island to another. He stopped in every town or city to set up a rostrum and win allies and friends for the cause of Cuban liberty. He recalls the martyrs, apostles, and missionaries for whom suffering, fatigue, and sacrifices were only obstacles to be overcome. Such mystics were always eager to surrender themselves to the pyre of heroism or sainthood.

The sea and land journeys of Martí resemble the routes of the Argonauts or of the conquistadors of the 16th century. Since Martí was *the* man of America, he also seems to typify the best eras of Spain. He spoke to Spain in the language of truth and rectitude. He never confused the Spanish people and culture with the evil government of its decadent monarchy. Martí shared the spirit of Vitoria and Las Casas, those great Spaniards of the 16th century, and had the critical intelligence of his contemporaries Costa, Ganivet, and Pérez Galdós.

José Martí was a devoted admirer of Simón Bolívar. Indeed, all the American Republics were part of Martí's background. The great men of our continent were praised by his eloquent pen; the figures of Juárez and Lincoln, of Agramonte and Sheridan, of Andrés Bello and Longfellow are painted in his pure and glowing prose.

Simón Bolívar and José Martí were impressive because of their continentality. They thought of the problems of each man's country, but they never lost sight of the great fatherland of us all. They advocated the union of the free republics, considered all problems on a lofty plane, and shared all the hopes of America.

In the brotherhood of nations they discerned the path of the Future. Cuba, which was the beginning and end of Martí's heroic

pilgrimage, had the glory of being born into a life of freedom through his thought and his sacrifice. A man of ardent but well-balanced temperament, a fighter who loved peace, he was the paladin of a patriotic cause continental in scope. His course was the earthly projection of eternal virtues, in which a strong core of character was wreathed with the most delicate flowers of the spirit.

III. Portrait

José Martí was possessed by sacrificial fervor and by a keen fighting spirit. One who reads the letters written in his last years and the pages written shortly before his death hears the echo of a mysterious voice. It seems as if an irrevocable sentence were being fulfilled, as if the denouement had been prepared for many years. Martí came into the world ready to receive the stigmata of the martyrs to American independence. His life is at once classic and romantic. He had the physique of a strong, healthy, and cheerful man, like that of the young Athenian who moved easily in stadium or academy.

Martí's Hellenic stripe is evident in the serenity of his thought. This did not occur to him; but posterity gave him entrance to the groves of Academe. His inquiring mind and his desire to merge in the infinite bring him close to the thought of Plato. Martí could have taken part in the *Dialogues* and would have profited by the teachings of Socrates as much as the most faithful and devoted of the Greek's disciples.

Martí was a man who loved life. He thought that to live it to its full it was necessary to have a free country. He imagined that Cuba might be like one of those enchanted isles of the Aegean in which letters, arts, and philosophy flourished under a

democratic way of life. He carried even farther than the Greeks his concept of a republic, because he could not assent to the idea that manual work should be done by slaves. In his mind the aesthetic disciplines of Hellas stood side by side with the Christian ideal of the redemption of the humble.

This attempt to relate Martí to the ancient world is not rhetorical or arbitrary, for his personality, cast in a heroic mold, was of the stuff of which legends are made.

Like the Greeks, he served in the temple of Apollo, and followed the cult of friendship. He admired lovely women and the unspoiled natural beauties of the continent. The philosophy of art, epic stories of heroic deeds, essays on ethics, history, and law, were among the works that he read most eagerly.

Martí's entire life is a hymn to friendship. His school friends, those made in his years of storm and stress in Spain, in Mexico, in Guatemala, in Caracas, in Costa Rica, in Santo Domingo, and in New York, were close to his mind and heart until the very hour of his death. In Martí friendship takes on a Platonic nobility. The play of the purest and highest intelligence in Plato's *Dialogues* is the same as that in the conversations of Martí with his friends, or in his correspondence with them. Martí's letters fill a number of volumes, but there are still many hidden in drawers here and there or in old editorial desks. The transcendental quality that Martí gave to friendship is noticeable in his eulogies of great men, living or dead. Mingled with enthusiastic praise or measured criticism there is every now and then a friendly and familiar phrase; he even acted as if unknown correspondents were friends.

Perhaps there does not exist in the history of American thought another writer of Martí's rank who has so often treated his friends and compatriots like brothers. Even

without much other testimony this alone would suffice to show the noble Christian spirit of Martí. In his letters are found simple words of encouragement, consolation, or piety for persons of every station in life as well as impelling ideas or fitting theories to ennoble good works.

Adversity never left its mark on him. His greatest defense was his lyric temperament, his sense of well-being, his poetic conception of the world about him. To his intellectual gifts and his humane sensibility was united his effort to do good. Tenderness and pity flowered in his heart. Although he lived in perpetual strife, he was not a man of hate. He knew how to speak the truth with integrity and condemn infamy, tyranny, or wickedness, but he always kept the reserve of the man who respects himself and can regard his adversaries without rancor.

With Martí, a woman's voice, a child's smile, an old man's look were the subjects for a poem or an essay. *La Edad de Oro* (The Golden Age), the title of the literary magazine that Martí dedicated to schools, was an echo from the past of one who looks back to his childhood to find himself. Many were his observations amazing for their penetration, clearheadedness, and analytical intelligence, but on reading his works one soon comes upon sentences of almost child-like ingenuousness. Martí proves what has often been said, that a truly great poet always has something of the child in his mind and heart. Intellect, no matter how extraordinary it may be, is not the fundamental requisite for a poet, who must be capable of capturing the imponderables: tenderness, kindness, intuition, innocence, a mystic's faith, and a martyr's vocation.

Martí lived and died a poet. He knew how to extract pleasure from life and from his dealings with his fellow men, because he had his own magic for transfiguring everything. He was still vibrant with life when

he came to the portals of death; his thoughts were crowding upon him in haste to be put into writing. There was something within him that refused to remain unexpressed. He had so much to say that this urgency tortured him.

As soon as he had written the Montecristi manifesto and the letters to Federico Henríquez y Carvajal¹ and to Manuel Mercado, which are like a testament to his country, to his friends, and to his nation, he felt free of baggage, as Antonio Machado said. The man appeared enveloped in divine grace, ready to hasten his appointment with death. There are those who say or think that his sacrifice was absurd because he might quite properly have avoided meeting his fellow revolutionaries on the field of battle in Cuba. He did not believe so. But some of those who loved Martí the most would have wished to keep in reserve his remarkable intelligence and his unbounded self-denial for use when Cuba began its independent life.

No, he had the most glorious death that a hero can desire. He died like one of the people. Abraham Lincoln and José Martí, who were so much alike, stand out in life and in death as symbols of American democratic thought. Martí, who called the Negro and the Indian brothers, fell as they fell in the wars for freedom and independence. At Dos Ríos the great man, the thinker and the poet of continental stature, the insurgent captain, became by his own wish an unknown soldier. He was not frustrated; his heroic destiny was fulfilled. Perhaps Manuel Gutiérrez Nájera, his fellow poet, thought of him when he wrote his elegy for those who die young. Like Simón Bolívar, Antonio José de Sucre and Francisco Morazán, his colleagues in the epic of America, he did

not reach the age of fifty. Their lives, full of hope and abounding in promise, are venerated by the people at altars where the lights never grow dim.

Bolívar, Sucre, and Morazán often saw the sunrise of victory and knew the acclamations of triumph after glorious feats of valor. Martí experienced the bitterness of poverty, of imprisonment, of iron shackles, of exile. Nothing could defeat or discourage him; when he received the fatal volley he entered immortality with the generous smile of one who has given all he had to give.

Martí's heroic figure is known throughout America. His devotion to his country is deeply moving, and his nation has never failed him. His name, his work, his real life, and the legend of his deeds are known to the learned and the illiterate, to the rich and the humble, to children and the aged, to white and black, to the man of action and the thinker.

When one hears the popular quatrains and ballads glorifying the hero and martyr in which the name of Martí passes from one Cuban to another, one is witnessing the expression of a filial affection that is true and deep. José Martí is never absent from the hearts of his people. If he could look down on his native land, he would find a reward for his toil and efforts when he saw his free country eager to advance; he would know that his sacrifice was not vain and that his teachings have borne good fruit. He would see that Cuba is a country full of democratic fervor, strongly American in feeling and, like himself, imbued with a spirit of universal sympathy. Martí's ideas are a perpetual stimulus to all Cubans. His battle for the dignity of man and for the independence of his country, his paternal feeling towards the humble and the forgotten, have been incarnated in the history of Cuba and are venerated by all America.

¹ See page 272.

Martí in His Own Words

I. Walt Whitman

New York, April 19, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF "EL PARTIDO LIBERAL":¹

"He looked like a god last night, as he sat in his red velvet armchair, with his white hair, his flowing beard, his bushy eyebrows, and his hand resting on a staff." That is what one of today's papers says of Walt Whitman, the seventy-year-old² sage to whom discerning critics, always in the minority, assign an extraordinary place in the literature of his country and of his time. Only the sacred books of ancient days offer a philosophy that can be compared, for prophetic language and robust poetry, to that which issues, in magnificent oracular aphorisms like flashes of light, from this aged poet whose astounding book is banned. . . .

He is a poet to be studied, because if he does not have the best taste, he is the most daring, catholic, and unrestrained of his time. In his small wooden house, all but poverty-stricken, there hangs in a window a black-draped picture of Victor Hugo; Emerson the noble and lofty clasped his shoulders and called him friend; Tennyson, whose eye can see beneath the surface, sends from his oak chair in England affectionate messages to the "grand old man;" Robert Buchanan, that spirited Englishman, cries out to the United States: "What can you know of letters, if you fail to crown, with the honors that are his

due, the declining years of your colossal Walt Whitman?" . . .

He lives in the country, where untutored man and his patient horses till the open field under the burning sun; but he lives near the friendly and turbulent city, with its human noises, its kaleidoscope of toil, its manifold epic, its dusty streets, its smoking factories, with the sun looking down upon everything—"the group of laborers seated at noon-time with their open dinner-kettles," "the curtained litter, a sick man inside, borne to the hospital," "women taken suddenly, who hurry home and give birth to babes."

Yesterday Whitman came in from the country to deliver, before an assembly of loyal friends, his oration upon that other son of nature, that other great and gentle soul, that "powerful western fallen star," Abraham Lincoln. The cream of New York was there, listening in reverent silence to that brilliant address, which seemed at times, with its sudden flourishes, its vibrant tones, its solemn counterpoint, its Olympic familiarity, like the stars singing together. . . .

Perhaps there is nothing finer in the poetry of our time than Whitman's mystical dirge on Lincoln. All Nature goes with the lamented bier as it journeys toward its grave. The stars have foretold it. The clouds had been darkening for a month. A gray-brown bird was singing its desolate song in the swamp. Between the thought of death and the knowledge of death the poet journeys across the troubled land as between two companions. With a musician's art he combines, mutes, and repeats these mournful elements in one complete harmony of twilight. When the poem ends it seems as though the

Translated from Martí, Vol. 8, p. 311. Gonzalo de Quesada, Editor, Habana, 1909.

¹ Published in Mexico City. While in New York Martí was a correspondent of a number of Latin American papers. In 1880 he wrote for *The Hour*, a New York weekly, a few articles under the title *Impressions of a Fresh Spaniard*, and for some years contributed to *The Sun*.

² Sic.

whole land were clothed in black, and the coffin covered it from one sea to the other. We see the clouds, the sagging moon which proclaims the catastrophe, the long wings of the gray-brown bird. It is much more beautiful, strange, and profound than Poe's *Raven*. The poet lays a sprig of lilac upon the bier. . . .

Listen to what this people is saying in its toil and contentment; listen to Walt Whitman. Fulfillment of self will lift one up to the sublime, tolerance to justice, and order to happiness. He who lives within an autocratic creed is like an oyster in its shell, seeing only the prison that encloses it, and believing, in the darkness, that this is the world; freedom puts wings on the oyster. And that which sounded like terrible strife, when heard from within the shell, is discovered in the open air to be the natural pulsation of the vigorous life of the world. . . .

Walt Whitman's style, wholly different from that of earlier poets, is suited in its individuality and force to his epochal poetry and to the new humanity, assembled on a continent breeding prodigies too great for lyrics or for neatly turned quatrains; here is no place for secret love-affairs, for ladies whose favors pass from knight to knight, or for the sterile complaints of those who have neither the power that can conquer life nor the discretion meet for cowards.

Here we have no dainty rhymes, no private griefs, but the birth of an era, the dawn of a definitive religion, and the spiritual renewal of mankind; here we have a faith to take the place of one that has died, a faith that rises radiant from the dynamic peace of ransomed man; here we have the sacred books of a people which is combining upon the ruins of the old world all the virgin forces of freedom with the fertility and richness of untamed Nature; here we have set to the music of words, the sounds of multitudes

finding their places, of cities in toil, of oceans mastered, and of rivers tamed and put to work. Is Walt Whitman to match consonants and frame couplets around these mountains of merchandise, these forests and thickets, these cities of ships, these struggles in which millions of men lay down their lives for the right; or around the sun which rules over all and sheds its white fire over the vastness of the landscape?

Oh no! Walt Whitman speaks in lines which have no obvious music, although after we have heard them we begin to perceive a sound like that which comes from the ground when barefoot armies march over it in triumph. There are times when Whitman's language is like a butcher shop hung with beeves; there are others when it is like a chorus of patriarchs, sitting together and singing with the gentle sadness that fills the world at the hour when smoke disappears among the clouds; sometimes it is like a rough kiss, like an assault, like the crackling of dried leather when it splits in the sun; but never does the phrase lose its rhythmic wavelike motion.

He says himself that he speaks "in prophetic alarms;" "I myself but write one or two indicative words for the future." That is what his poetry is, indicative; a feeling for the universal pervades the book and gives a magnificent symmetry to its superficial disorder; but his phrases, disjointed, snapping, incomplete, loose, are more like exclamations than like statements—"The white-topped mountains show in the distance—I fling out my fancies toward them;" "Earth! . . . Say, old Top-knot! what do you want?" "I sound my barbaric yawp over the roofs of the world." . . .

. . . He sketches; but with fire, as it were. In five lines he ties into a bundle of freshly gnawed bones all the horrors of war. An adverb serves to expand or contract his phrase, an adjective to exalt it. His method

must be great since his effect is great, and yet he seems almost to proceed with no method at all; this is especially true in the use of words, which he mixes with a daring never seen before, putting words which are lofty and almost sacred side by side with words regarded as hardly decent.

Some of his pictures he paints, not with the epithets he can make so lively and so profound, but with sounds, which he combines and removes with equal skill; and so by a change of approach he keeps up the interest which might be endangered by the monotony of a single manner. He induces melancholy by use of repetition, as do the savages. His caesura, unexpected and movable, changes constantly and conforms to no rule, although a cunning order can be felt

in its evolution, pauses, and movements. He prefers to describe by heaping up; and his reasoning never takes the pedestrian forms of argument nor the grandiose tones of oratory—rather the mysteriousness of insinuation, the fervor of certainty, and the fire of prophecy. At every turn we find in his book these words from our Spanish language: *viva, camarada, libertad, americanos*. But what is more characteristic than the French words he embeds in his verses with obvious delight and as if to emphasize their meaning? *ami, exalté, accoucheur, nonchalant, ensemble*; *ensemble* has a special fascination for him, because he sees the sky that covers the life of nations and of worlds. And from Italian he has taken the word *bravura!*

II. Letter to Federico Henríquez y Carvajal¹

Montecristi, March 25, 1895

FRIEND AND BROTHER:

The responsibilities which fall to the lot of men who, not denying their slight effectiveness to the world, live to increase its measure of freedom and dignity, are such that language comes to seem vague and infantile and one can hardly put into a meager phrase what could be said to a dear friend by an embrace. Thus it is with me now as, upon the threshold of a great duty, I answer your generous letter. It did me the utmost good, and gave me the only strength that great deeds require, which is to know that a sincere and honorable man is viewing them with ardent interest. Rare as mountain peaks are the men who can look on the world from above, feeling with the

heart of a nation, or of all humanity. And after gripping the hand of such a man one is left with that feeling of inner purification which must come after winning a hard battle in a just cause.

Of what is really preoccupying me I purposely have not spoken to you, for you divine it wholly: I am writing, with deep emotion, in the silence of a home which for the good of my country is going to be abandoned, perhaps this very day. The least that I can do in gratitude for that sacrifice, since in this way I shall be at one with my duty, is to face death, if it awaits us on land or on sea, in the company of him² who, because of the work of my hands, and respect for his own labors, and the passion of the soul common to our lands, goes forth from his loving and happy home with a handful of valiant

¹Translated from Martí, Gonzalo de Quesada, Editor, Habana, 1909, Vol. 7, p. 308.

²This letter was written less than two months before Martí met his death on the battlefield.

²General Máximo Gómez, Dominican-born hero of Cuban independence. He was a leader in the insurrection of 1868, and generalissimo of the Cuban forces in 1895.

men, to set foot on the soil of a country overrun by enemies.

Aside from my conviction that my presence in Cuba now is at least as useful as it is outside, I was dying of shame to think that in such a great risk I might reach the point of convincing myself that it was my duty to let him go alone, and that a nation allows itself to be served, without scorn and aversion, by one who preached the necessity of dying and did not begin by risking his own life. Wherever my duty is greater, at home or abroad, there I shall be. Both may be possible or necessary for me.

Perhaps I shall be able to contribute to the prime necessity of so organizing our renaissance war that it will bear plainly, without useless minutiae, the germ of the principles indispensable to the credit of the revolution and to the security of the republic.

The difficulty with our wars of independence, and the reason for their slow and imperfect results, has been not so much the lack of mutual esteem among their leaders and the rivalry inherent in human nature as the lack of an organization which would include not only the spirit of redemption and integrity—which, with motives of lesser purity, foments and sustains the war—but also the practices and persons of the war.

After independence is won, there is another difficulty, for which our ruling and cultured classes have not yet found a solution. It is that of combining such forms of government as, without creating dissatisfaction among the intellectual aristocracy of the country, will embrace—and allow the natural and increasing development of—the more numerous and uneducated elements of the population, which an artificial government, even though fine and generous, would lead to anarchy or tyranny.

I called forth the war: and my responsibility begins with the war, instead of ending there. For me my country will never mean

triumph, but rather agony and duty.

Already blood burns for battle. Now sacrifice must be endured with dignity, grace, and human meaning; the war must be waged and won; if it orders me, in accordance with my only wish, to remain, I shall remain with it; if, piercing my very soul, it orders me to go far away from those who are dying as I would die, I shall also have the courage for that. Whoever thinks of himself does not love his country; and the weakness of nations, however much it may be subtly hidden from them, lies in the obstructions or the hasty actions with which the self-interest of their representatives retards or accelerates the natural course of events. From me you may count on complete and continued self-renunciation. I shall rouse the multitudes. But my only desire is to stay, to fight to the last ditch, to the last man; and to die in silence. For me, the time has come.

But still I can serve this single heart of our republics. The Antilles free will save the independence of our America, and the now dubious and battered honor of English America, and perhaps will hasten and stabilize the balance of the world. See what we are doing: you, with your premature gray hairs, and I, dragging along with my broken heart.

Why should I speak to you of Santo Domingo? Is that separate from Cuba? You are not a Cuban, yet is there anywhere a better one than you? And Gómez, is he not Cuban? And I, what am I, and who can place me in one land? Was not that soul mine, and I proud to own it, that soul which throbbed in your voice and carried me with it in that unforgettable evening of virile comradeship in the Sociedad de Amigos? I feel the same ardor; the two go together. And I bow to, and I may even say that I honor as a higher dispensation and as an American law, the happy necessity of setting forth with the aid of Santo Domingo for

Cuba's war of independence. Let us forge above the sea, with blood and love, a chain like that formed upon the bottom of the sea by the fiery cordillera of the Andes.

I tear myself from you, and with a deeply affectionate embrace I leave you the request that in my name, whose only value is that it now belongs to my country, you express present and future thanks for all the justice and affection that Cuba receives. To whoever loves her, I cry from my heart:

"Brother!" And I have no brothers except those who love her.

Farewell, to you and to all my kind and generous friends. To you I owe an interlude of nobility and integrity in the harshness and ugliness of this human universe. Raise your voice high: for if I fall, it will be for the independence of your fatherland as well as mine.

Your

JOSÉ MARTÍ

Sayings

Things that are truly great are done without pomp and without hatred.

An ideal is to be judged by its nobility and not by this or that wart placed upon it by human passion.

Enthusiasm is as necessary at critical times as reason.

A nation's independence consists of the respect that the authorities show to each one of its citizens.

America is the land of rebels and creators.

The country needs sacrifices. It is an altar and not a pedestal. It is to be served and not to be made use of.

An orator shines by what he says, but is judged by what he does. If he does not support his words by his deeds, even before death he crashes to the ground because he has been standing on columns of smoke.

What is the purpose of scientific advances except to bring peace among men?

Republics are made up of men; to be a man on this earth is a very difficult career and one that is seldom successful.

All that is true is holy although it may not smell like a pink.

The meaning of this word race is becoming very confused and must be straightened out. A man has no special rights because he is of one race or another. If he is a man all rights belong to him.

Samuel Lewis

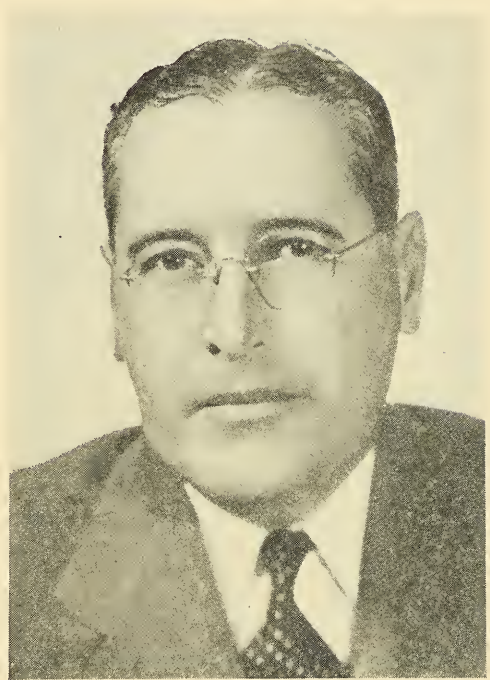
Ambassador of Panama

THE Governing Board of the Pan American Union and the diplomatic corps of Washington have gained a new member in the Honorable Samuel Lewis, the Ambassador of Panama, who recently took up his residence in the capital of the United States. He presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on March 19, 1945.

The Ambassador was born in Panama City June 20, 1901. After attending school there, he was graduated from the Colegio de La Salle and in 1926 married Doña Raquel Galindo.

Señor Lewis has followed faithfully in the footsteps of his father, an eminent patriot, statesman, diplomat, and man of letters. He served his country first as an assistant in the protocol division of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and then as a Deputy in the National Assembly and Vice President of that body, which he represented at the inauguration of the President of Nicaragua in January 1933. After three years as assistant manager of the National Lottery, he became manager of that important enterprise, which he left to become Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1944. Later in the year the Ministry of Finance was also put in his charge.

Señor Lewis has taken an active interest in journalistic life as editor of *Mundo Gráfico*, a weekly published in Panama City. Furthermore, he was president of the Panama City Improvement Board, vice president of the Panamanian Development Commission, and a corresponding member of the Panama Academy of History. He holds the Grand Cross of the following orders: Vasco Núñez de Balboa, of Panama; Al Mérito, of Chile; and El Sol, of Peru.



Last December, while Señor Lewis was Minister of Foreign Affairs, he came to the United States and stayed a few days in Washington as the guest of the United States. At a special session of the Governing Board held in his honor he was welcomed by the Honorable Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., Secretary of State of the United States, and Chairman of the Board. Señor Lewis replied to Mr. Stettinius' cordial greetings with an eloquent address, which was in part as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, GENTLEMEN:

. . . One feels in this building a deep and gratifying sense of Americanism which comforts the spirit and encourages reflection on the elements

required to strengthen and solidify the present unity of the Continent and contribute to its victory and glory.

And this thought, prompted by the time and the place, leads me to point out that to attain full unity, to gain decisive triumphs, our nations must know each other better. We must know our problems and our needs as we know our resources and potentialities, and thereby acquire a sincere and effective sense of mutual assistance. We shall thus develop a continental conscience, strong and just, and be able to fulfill our destiny in history with our face turned toward the future.

The great union of the Americas needs a profound and thorough sense of reciprocal collaboration, recognized by all as an obligation and not merely as a generous and spontaneous contribution. We must tell one another, openly, frankly and without reticence, of our lacks, our errors, our defects, and our deficiencies.

A self-defeating diplomacy, an unwarranted attachment to exaggerated formulas of courtesy, has led in the past to constant praise by some nations of others, perhaps in the erroneous belief that real brotherhood consists in repeatedly asserting that we are a composite of all the virtues. We have, in general, hidden from our neighbors of America the intimate problems that worry us, the fundamental defects that retard us, while childishly proclaiming the fertility of our soil, the mildness of our climate, the beauty of our landscape, and the courage of our heroes. Such a method has divided rather than united us, and these laurel leaves that we have so carefully intertwined have concealed one nation from another more effectively than smoke screens would have.

With a national spirit ever alert but more freely communicative, with a more practical idea of real comradeship and legitimate pride, we shall be in a position to look for and find in another country what we lack in our own, to learn from other nations what we do not know, to ask for support in our weakness, for helpful advice in our dilemmas. For there is no nation in the great American family so powerful and rich that it has no need of another; and none so weak and poor that it cannot offer material and moral help. It is such assistance that will accelerate the progress of this vast continent, our common country. . . .

It is imperative that we take a further step,

that we broaden our thinking; and just as one's ties expand from the home to the city, and from the city to the country, so likewise must each one's thought stretch beyond his own country to all America. Thus each part will become an offering to the whole, and the glory and the benefit due each nation will constitute its contribution to the common benefit and glory of the Continent. If we selfishly reserve our possessions to ourselves, we shall enjoy their fruits only; but if we take a broad American view, we shall enjoy not only our fruits but also the yield of the entire Continent.

And finally, to give effect to the idea which I am presenting, we of the North, the Center, and the South must eradicate the last vestiges of friction rooted in the past. If at one time the youthful energy of the United States devoted itself primarily to achieving success and thus aroused fears, the United States of today, because of its ever-growing sense of justice, is the nation of the world that has the best balance between physical power and the moral strength of the spirit. If in the past the South American countries have sometimes given the impression of peoples following no precise direction, today all of them are firmly established and sincerely interested in order and progress, ready to fulfill their mission as part of the Continent destined to be the granary of the world, the bulwark of democracy, and the eternal fount of law. . . .

These must be, in my opinion, as a Panamanian and an American, the standards by which we shall attain an indestructible unity and make a beautiful reality of the Good Neighbor Policy, proclaimed and put into practice by an illustrious citizen of our continent and of the world. I venture to express these opinions in the friendly atmosphere of the Pan American Union. I am encouraged, too, by the words addressed to me by the distinguished representative who has had the kindness to welcome me, and inspired by the presence of Dr. L. S. Rowe, to whom the entire Continent owes a debt of gratitude. And now that I have presented my views, I want to add with pride that these are the sentiments of Panama, because there exist in Panama a deep love of country and at the same time a constant desire for the complete realization of the brotherhood and the greatness of America.



Photograph by Ynés Mexía

RIVER STEAMER AND SAILBOATS ON THE AMAZON

"Life in Santarém centered on river activities. Into the harbor came big modern flying boats and ocean-going steamers, a few motor launches, little boats with home-dyed crimson or turquoise sails, and crude canoes of hollowed logs."

At Home on the Amazon

ELIZABETH SEARLE LAMB

OUR first glimpse of Santarém came from the round window of a plane which circled over the little Brazilian town before coming in to land on the Tapajós River. Here we could see the bright clear blue water of the tributary forming a distinct line of demarcation as it joined the gray muddy flow of the Amazon. Red-tile-roofed buildings hugging the curving sandy beach were dominated by the twin spires of a large church. The broken lines and varied colors relieved our eyes from the monotony of the green jungle over which we had been flying constantly since leaving Belém three and a half hours before. Soon we stepped from the plane onto the Panair dock, and went about the task of getting settled for an indefinite stay.

Floriano Peixoto No. 4, our home for many months, was back from the street and completely enclosed, giving us a measure of privacy. This privacy, unfortunately, did not extend to the neighbors' chickens, which were always squeezing through the picket fence, or their pet toucan, a gawdy amusing creature with a huge beak, that begged constantly for a bit of banana or a piece of ripe tomato. Once a pig managed to slip through and give the little boys who came for him a merry chase. Though we connected a bell with the front gate it was only rung by the small neighborhood children in fun. For all practical purposes the Brazilians announced themselves by a loud hand clap.

The house itself was clay-plastered and

tile-proofed. An open back porch was our only kitchen, but we boasted of hooks for fifteen hammocks. Beds were an oddity on the Amazon where men, women, and children preferred hammocks. I myself never mastered the art of sleeping in a hammock, even after two months of steady practice, but stretched out on the bed we finally obtained from Belém with a great delight—straw mattress and all! Our water was carried from the river by a boy with two gasoline tins hung from a pole across his shoulders. There was electricity from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. and we were charged according to the number of light bulbs in the house.

For food we had a combination of native fruits, vegetables, and meat and American cans, the only difficulty with the latter being that we invariably drew No. 10 cans from the U. S. Commissary in Belém. Just try to use up a big can of diced beets for two people, especially with indifferent and variable refrigeration! However, those cans made all the difference in the world. And from the native market we had the sweetest pineapples I have ever tasted; huge avocados costing $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents apiece; eggplant; tomatoes;

strange purple potatoes; long, thin green beans; a first cousin to our squash; and beef twice a week by arrangement with the butcher. From our back yard we picked limes, coconuts, and custard apples, sweet fruits with as many seeds as watermelons; and guavas, which we didn't care for but which made us very popular with the small fry. The fish was wonderful, especially boiled in coconut milk and combined with a few slices of green pepper and tomato to make a sort of stew. We had gorgeous oranges and a dozen varieties of banana (try it fried and garnished with grated coconut and sprinkled with cinnamon). All water had to be boiled. Evaporated milk or milk powder when we could get it was our only supply of milk, as the supply for the town was completely inadequate. Bread came in small hard loaves which we found fairly palatable when toasted. Butter came from cans. Coffee was one commodity of which there was plenty, and we drank it as the Brazilians did, strong and black and very sweet.

Rufina, the middle-aged Brazilian negress who kept house for us, was an interesting character. Her whole life had been spent on the Amazon and she had traveled widely



Photograph by E. S. Lamb

A STREET IN SANTAREM

Santarém is the trading center for all the Tapajós River and for the surrounding Amazonian territory.

SAILBOATS ARE ADAPTABLE

A hammock and a beef can be crowded in.



Photograph by E. S. Lamb

up and down its length. She knew everyone in Santarém and kept us up to date on town gossip, undoubtedly regaling her friends at the same time with tales of the strange *Americanos*.

Life in Santarém centered on river activities. Into the harbor came big modern flying boats and ocean-going steamers, a few motor launches, little boats with home-dyed crimson or turquoise sails, and crude canoes of hollowed logs. This is the trading center for the whole of the Tapajós River, stretching clear into the Mato Grosso region, as well as for the surrounding Amazonian territory. Crude rubber, various nuts and vegetable oils, alligator skins, jute, and hand-woven straw baskets and hats were among the many products which passed through to the port of Belém for reshipment to the south of Brazil or to other countries. The caboclos living in isolation up the river (so isolated that some were still unaware in 1944 that a war was in progress) came here for their meager supplies. While trading in Santarém they lived in their little boats with only a palm-thatch shelter from the tropical storms, cooking on a fire built in a small box of sand, and sleeping in hammocks strung to the sail

masts. Along the sandy beach fishermen sold their catches; naked children dived and splashed; and dark-skinned laundry women squatted, pounding clothes to glistening whiteness and paper-thinness. Back from the beach rose the main business street with its small tile-front shops and square market. This street ended at the *praça*, or square, lined with shade trees and stone benches, where the evening promenades occurred under the watchful eye of the church standing on one side.

The social life of the community was largely based on festivals of the Catholic Church. These celebrations of various saints' days, each lasting from a week to a month, reminded me vividly of small county fairs in Kansas. Opening and closing days were town holidays, which commenced with rockets in the early dawn and were highlighted by processions through the town. Services, often featuring children's choirs or special ensemble music, were held each evening at the particular church sponsoring the festival. This service was followed by a program of popular music from a bandstand in front of the church. At small palm-thatched booths food and drinks were served. The main attrac-

tion, however, lay in the various games of chance set up within the circle of refreshment stands. There were the usual wheels almost hidden beneath the prizes, which ranged from condensed milk to shoes. There was a geography game where the players drew slips of paper to plan their imaginary itineraries. The largest crowd of all assembled around the white rat which won or lost for the bettors according to the box into which it dashed when freed. The children occasionally took time out from the betting rings to play hilariously on a primitive amusement device standing at one side, seemingly a cross between a ferris wheel and a wide swing. And the five-piece samba band played on and on.

Santarém, now a town of some eight or ten thousand inhabitants, grew up on the site of an old Indian settlement. Interesting pottery relics of this early pre-Columbian life are still found—ornately carved clay pipes, flat bowls with decorative figures on four sides, other bowls on raised pedestals. The ornamental figures are all of religious significance. Holes are often found in these pieces for feathers which added decoration. Some of the relics are of Peruvian Indian origin, showing that even in that early day there was river travel up and down the Amazon. A pottery urn containing the bones of an Indian was dug up when the trees which now line the *praça* were planted. The authorities refused to allow its removal, so it remains buried in a corner of the park, mute evidence of an earlier civilization.

In Santarém we met one of the surviving settlers from the South who left the United



PRE-COLUMBIAN WARE

Indian pottery is still found at Santarém.

States after the Civil War to found an American colony on the Amazon. There is no American colony as such today, but the descendants of those southerners are to be found scattered throughout the whole Santarém region. And their influence is still seen in the watermelons which they introduced, some well-known pastry recipes, and an occasional tow-headed fair-skinned child.

In Santarém we learned to understand and speak a measure of Portuguese (an achievement mothered by necessity!). We made many Brazilian friends and learned something of their ways of life, their problems, and their desires. We found high potentialities and a considerable measure of charm there, both in the little town itself and in its friendly inhabitants. And there was a touch of regret in our last view of Santarém which, like our first, was from the window of a plane circling high.

Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture

THE Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its meeting on February 7, 1945 approved the following program for the Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, which will be held at Caracas, Venezuela, beginning July 24, 1945. The Second Conference met at Mexico City in July 1942.

AGRICULTURE AND THE POSTWAR PERIOD

Section I

MONEY AND AGRICULTURE

1. Review of the recommendations of the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference held in Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, and of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference.

a) Proposal for an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development: its significance for agricultural development in the Americas.

b) International stabilization of the monetary system.

2. Agricultural credit.

a) Organization and development of credit for agricultural, livestock, and forestry industries.

b) Establishment of an Inter-American Agricultural and Livestock Credit Fund.

Section II

PRESENT AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION AND ITS ADJUSTMENTS TO THE POSTWAR PERIOD

1. Present status and future prospects for the production, utilization, and distribution of those commodities which play an important part in world trade, including: wheat, coffee, sugar, cotton, hard fibers, rice, and vegetable oils.

2. Present status and future prospects for those crops whose production in the Western Hemisphere has been increased during the war, including: rubber, quinine, insecticides, drugs and essential oils.

3. Study of existing international measures to promote the orderly production and distribution of surplus commodities to the best advantage of both the producer and the consumer.

Section III

FOODSTUFFS AND RAW MATERIALS

1. Increased efficiency in production of basic foodstuffs and of other economic crops.

a) Establishment of organizations to coordinate and promote production.

b) Measures to achieve maximum utilization of resources, consistent with conservation and comparative advantage.

2. Increased consumption of food and agricultural raw materials.

a) Utilization of agricultural and livestock surpluses at the present time and in the postwar years.

b) Measures to improve nutrition of rural and urban populations, including preparation of balanced diets utilizing available foodstuffs.

3. Inter-American technical cooperation to increase efficiency of production and consumption: relation to international cooperation, particularly in reference to the Food and Agricultural Organization.

Section IV

MARKETS AND TRANSPORTATION

1. Transportation and marketing facilities for agricultural and livestock products in the postwar period.

a) Development of transportation facilities, including study of the effects on the economy of the American nations brought about by air transportation of agricultural products.

b) Development of the services for marketing agricultural products, including storing, classifying, processing, and preserving.

c) Development of storage facilities to permit orderly marketing.

2. Inter-American technical cooperation in develop-

ment of facilities for distribution and marketing of agricultural products; relation to international co-operation, particularly in reference to Food and Agricultural Organization.

3. Inter-American cooperation in matters pertaining to international commerce that may affect the interests of a part or of all the American Republics.

a) Trade policy, including tariffs.

b) Commercial agreements.

Section V

AGRICULTURAL MIGRATIONS IN THE POSTWAR YEARS

1. Colonization.

a) Movement of rural populations from overpopulated regions to sparsely inhabited ones.

b) Establishment of governmental policies on national and international colonization.

2. Suitable selection and control of immigration in the postwar era and its application to agriculture.

Section VI

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS

1. Improvement of the methods employed in compiling statistics in the American Republics, especially those concerned with agricultural production, commerce, climatology, etc.

2. Measures to insure the regular preparation and publication of statistics in the American Republics.

3. Agricultural and livestock census.

Music Education in Fourteen Latin American Republics

VANETT LAWLER

Music Education Consultant, Pan American Union

Part II

Music Education in the Community Activity

SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA — In the Latin American Republics, much attention is given to music education by the symphony orchestras. It was the privilege of the writer to spend considerable time with the conductors of all the symphony orchestras. As stated earlier in this report, their sincere interest in music education and their realization of its importance and its relation to their own work are indeed gratifying. Orchestras have been organized for some years in Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Chile, and Cuba, and all of them take a marked interest in the idea of young people's concerts. In addition to the con-

certs themselves, cooperative plans have been developed by the orchestra managements and the schools whereby the students receive advance preparation for the concerts they are to hear. Young people's concerts have probably been most fully developed in Chile, where the Institute of Music Extension of the University of Chile and the Ministry of Education cooperate in a comprehensive program of educational concerts for school children. A series of concerts is given by the Chilean National Symphony Orchestra during the school year, each one of which is attended by as many as 6,000 children.

Special mention as well as commendation should be given to some of the younger orchestras in Latin America, including those in

Part I appeared in the April number.



A CAPPELLA CHOIR OF THE FRENCH DOMINICAN NUNS, HABANA.

El Salvador, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Panama and the Dominican Republic, which are wholeheartedly cooperating with the schools. The writer believes that the symphony orchestra can and will take an increasingly active part in the development of music education in Latin America.

COMMUNITY MUSIC ORGANIZATIONS.—Community music organizations have been active for many years in the Latin American Republics. They are of various types but their objectives are similar. For purposes of this report, community music groups are considered in their broadest sense and comments are included on workers' choruses and bands, professional choruses, school groups which contribute to community music life, community music organizations, and finally the exceedingly important national, military, and police bands.

Night schools which are organized under the Ministries of Education and are devoted solely to instruction in music and the other arts are one of the most interesting vehicles

by which music is reaching the community in many Latin American Republics. Two of the several night schools of this type in Mexico were visited—La Escuela de Iniciación Artística No. 1 and La Escuela Superior Nocturna de Música. Four to five hundred persons from all walks of life are enrolled in each of these schools—clerks, doctors, dentists, nurses, lawyers, and other professionals, office boys, railroad workers, and so on. Tuition is free. The students receive instruction in theory, in both formal and informal instruments, in choral work, voice, composition and languages. Similar night schools providing instruction in the arts for persons employed during the day were visited in Bogotá and Santiago, Chile. In one a band was heard, in another an orchestra; all were doing good choral work.

There are professional choruses in many of the Latin American Republics and more development may be anticipated in this field. Specific mention should be made of the Ma-drigal Chorus of Mexico, with approximately

twenty in the group. Throughout the year this chorus, which is maintained by the Government, gives concerts in schools and communities in various parts of Mexico. Through its performances under excellent direction and its well-planned programs, the chorus gives many Mexican communities and thousands of school children an opportunity to hear good choral music. The School of Sacred Music of the Archdiocese of Morelia, Mexico, with an enrollment of about eighty, is an outstanding example of a contribution to the music life of a community through church music. All the students are carefully chosen and during fifteen or so years of the most intensive kind of study they provide music in churches throughout the Republic. On the completion of their course, these trained musicians are assigned to church music positions in various parts of Mexico. Naturally, the contribution of this school to the community music life of Morelia and nearby towns is especially significant. The Habana Chorus is another organization which is making a major contribution to community life. Composed of some fifty to sixty men and women under one of the ablest of choral conductors, this organization works in cooperation with the Director of Cultural Rela-

tions in the Ministry of Education. Its concerts are extremely popular in Habana. In Viña del Mar, Chile, there is a community chorus which sings in Spanish, French, German and English, and its programs are exceedingly popular in Viña del Mar and Valparaíso.

The community programs of the Orfeón Lamas in Caracas and also of the Polyphonic Chorus of Venezuela are warmly received. The Workers' Chorus and Workers' Band of Caracas do work that is especially noteworthy in that their members had no training in music before joining the organizations. The University of Puerto Rico Choir is one of the most active of the community's organizations.

The Society of Patrons of Music, an interesting community music organization, has in recent years been responsible for the Salvadorean Symphony Orchestra. In Habana, the Society of Patrons of Music guides the destinies of the Philharmonic Orchestra, and the Cathedral Chorus performs under the auspices of the Concert Society. The National Symphony in Caracas has also had community sponsorship and support. In San José, Costa Rica, the National Opera Association finances and manages the opera pro-



A NORMAL SCHOOL
NEAR BOGOTÁ

Guitarists play for Señor
Antonio Rocha, Colombian
Minister of Education.



PANAMANIAN FOLK DANCES

ductions each year. All the talent in these productions is strictly non-professional, it should be noted, thus making the project a real community enterprise. Two other organizations in San José are in effect community groups—the Musical Culture Association, which brings visiting artists to the community, and the National Symphony, which has been in existence for two years. Although the symphony is under Government sponsorship, it is also supported by generous contributions of some civic-minded residents. With the exception of the orchestras mentioned, all of the symphony orchestras in the Latin American Republics receive their support and sponsorship directly from their governments, a situation which does not prevail in the United States.

In general, instrumental music groups among non-professionals and in schools are not well developed in Latin America. The work of one notable exception is therefore of particular interest. The Secondary and Normal School Band in the Normal School for Boys, a public school in Tegucigalpa, Honduras, was the only one of its kind encountered by the writer during the six-

months' trip. This band is an excellent example of good music education and an equally good example of a school music group that has become a part of the community life. The thirty-five to forty boys of the band, in their smart uniforms, participate in programs celebrating their own national holidays and Pan American Day, give Sunday concerts in the plaza, or a special concert, perhaps in honor of the birthday of the President of the United States. It is hoped that other groups will develop in the Latin American Republics similar to the one in Tegucigalpa.

The National Music Council in Lima is an active community music organization appointed by the President of the Republic. It plans and supervises all music activities and is at the present time giving serious consideration to the music education program in the public schools.

The national, military, and police bands in the Latin American Republics are among the most important of all organizations contributing to community music life, because they reach so many people. In each of the fourteen Republics visited, the writer found

that such bands are active, not only in the capital cities but also in the states, departments; or provinces. Every Sunday morning and once or twice during the week, large and enthusiastic audiences gather in practically every city and even in the villages to listen to concerts by these bands. In addition to presenting regular public concerts and performing at official gatherings, some of the bands collaborate closely with the schools by giving concerts for the pupils. In this connection, mention should be made of the very fine National Band in Bogotá, which gives concerts for school children not only in the capital but also in other parts of the country.

Contact was made insofar as possible with the directors of all the leading bands in the countries visited, and in every instance the director was eager to cooperate in the development of instrumental music in the schools.

The Military School of Music in San José, Costa Rica, is a particularly well-organized band school. Another exceptionally fine school which offers instrumental instruction for groups of students is the Army School of Music in Santiago, Chile. This school is under the close personal supervision of the Director of the Army Bands in Chile, and has the enthusiastic support of the General of the Chilean Army and his staff.

In the Dominican Republic, the Army Band of 88 pieces plays under a capable leader who is actually carrying on music education within his own group by giving instruction to many members of the band. Another very popular and active organization in the Dominican Republic is the District Band, which also carries on a teaching program. In time, and with the development of instrumental music instruction in the schools of the Dominican Republic, these community music organizations will benefit by the expanded program of music education.

FOLK MUSIC.—The Republics have with-

out exception a wealth of folk music which is well known to the great masses of the people, including boys and girls in the schools, and therefore offers a natural approach to the more formal aspects of music education. Folk music is being collected in many of the Republics at present with a view to its compilation for use in the schools.

In Mexico, much attention is given to folk music in the schools, and in Nicaragua an interesting volume of folk music has recently been published by the Ministry of Education. Panama, Chile, Colombia, Venezuela, the Dominican Republic and Haiti are all taking steps through their Ministries of Education to use more of their own folk music as the basis of their music education programs. Special mention should be made of the emphasis placed on folk music in the schools of the Republic of Panama. Venezuela is intelligently promoting the use of its own folk music. Many workers' and students' choruses are being developed in Caracas, and folk music is being used almost entirely as their basic repertoires.



DISTINGUISHED CHILEAN MUSICIANS

Left to right: Vicente Salas Viu, René Amengual, Domingo Santa Cruz, Humberto Allende, and Armando Carvajal.



THE MILITARY BAND, SAN JOSÉ, COSTA RICA

Bands have long been a feature of Latin American community life.

THE RADIO.—Radio has not been used to any great degree in music education in any of the American Republics visited, nor in the United States, but in the post-war period much more use will undoubtedly be made of this important instrumentality. The writer observed, however, in some of the countries visited, facilities as well as interest in radio as a means of furthering music education. Radio Chilena in Santiago de Chile, an independent station, gives only cultural programs with emphasis on music. The Extension Department of the Ministry of Education of Venezuela cooperates with two stations, Radio Caracas and Ondas Populares, in presenting cultural programs. Special mention should be made of Radio Nacional in Bogotá, maintained and supervised by the Ministry of Education, which broadcasts only news and cultural programs. This station has an exceptionally fine collection of records and also maintains a studio orchestra. Its director has in mind the development of a comprehensive plan for reaching the very

smallest Colombian villages through individual receiving sets if possible, or through loud speakers to be set up in the public squares.

In the Dominican Republic the radio devotes considerable time to music programs, including the presentation of the National Symphony Orchestra, the Army Band, and the District Band. Music appreciation hours, including lectures illustrated with records, are broadcast twice a week.

THE PRESS.—No account of the status of music and music education in the Latin American Republics would be complete without reference to the press. In the opinion of the writer, music in the Latin American Republics is in a particularly fortunate position with respect to press support and cooperation. In the fourteen Republics visited and in Puerto Rico, the newspapers were scanned each day; with few exceptions hardly a day passed that the papers did not give considerable space to music, art, drama and literature. Not only was space devoted to these sub-

jects—in itself an indication of editorial policy—but the subjects were intelligently covered.

Professional music education organizations

Because the professional organization of music education is probably the greatest single factor in the development of the music education profession in the United States, considerable time was spent in investigating this phase of music education in the Latin American Republics visited. In Mexico and Cuba professional music education organizations have been organized during the past few years—the National Association of Teachers and Professors of Music of Mexico and, in Cuba, the National Association of Conservatories and Professors of Music and the more recently organized Grupo de Renovación Musical. In Chile, the Music Teachers' Center, including the elementary school music educators, was founded in 1944, and

a similar group including the secondary school music educators was organized later in the same year. Proper liaison between the two organizations has been arranged.

It is pertinent to emphasize here the value of disseminating information about music and music education among the Latin American Republics and between the United States and each of these Republics. It is natural as well as practicable for the Latin American Republics to interchange ideas among themselves and to adopt or adapt United States concepts as seems advisable. Therefore, every effort was made by the writer to give each of the Latin American Republics visited information concerning significant trends in the other Republics. Effective hemisphere integration and coordination of all activities in music and music education can be achieved to the extent that institutions and organizations and individuals maintain contact with each other.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Dr. Consuelo Bernardino

ON January 19, 1945 the Dominican Republic lost one of its prominent physicians, Dr. Consuelo Bernardino. Although only 32 years old, she had been a pioneer among Dominican women physicians and a leader in her profession. She was a member of a well known family and her loss is deeply mourned in government circles and in all classes of society. Her colleagues on the medical faculty of the University of Santo Domingo paid her a final tribute by acting as a guard of honor around her coffin.

Dr. Bernardino received her degree in

medicine from the University of Santo Domingo in October 1935, and immediately afterward went to the United States. In 1936 she won the scholarship which the American Association of University Women grants each year to a Latin American woman, and entered the Women's Medical College in Philadelphia to take courses in gynecology. From there she went to Johns Hopkins to study gynecology and pediatrics, on a scholarship granted by the government of the Dominican Republic, interning at Johns Hopkins Hospital. Dr. Bernardino had the privilege of studying under some of the



CONSUELO BERNARDINO

most famous American gynecologists, who accorded her high praise. Later she attended the Post-Graduate Medical School of the University of Colombia, where she took special courses in electrotherapy.

In April 1940 she returned to her country to offer her services to the government, which utilized them immediately, and to society in general. For the first time in the history of the Republic there was created, in the Hospital Padre Billini, a gynecological ward, which Dr. Bernardino directed until the end of 1944. During her professional life she gave various public lectures on women's diseases and wrote a pamphlet on cancer, besides several unpublished works. While she was in the United States she contributed a series of articles to *Listín Diario*, a Dominican daily paper, which helped to orient medicine in her country.

By executive decree Dr. Bernardino was made a member of the Maternity and Infancy Board, and was also named assistant to Dr. Marion Crane, the technical expert of the Children's Bureau of the United States, during the latter's stay in the Dominican Republic at the invitation of the government.

Dr. Bernardino was a sister of the Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, Srta. Minerva Bernardino.

Suffrage Committee in Venezuela

The Coordinating Suffrage Committee in Venezuela has informed the Inter-American Commission of Women of its campaign to obtain votes for women. Notwithstanding the committee's efforts to secure national suffrage, only the right to vote in municipal elections was granted by Congress. The committee has now been converted into an organization called *Acción Femenina*, which intends to continue working for suffrage on the same basis as that on which it is granted to men; to train women for the exercise of their civic rights; and to work for the protection of women and children by legislation as well as in the social field. A distinguished group of women constitutes the executive board of *Acción Femenina*.

The Coordinating Committee, through Señora Ada Pérez Guevara de Boccalandro, expressed its gratitude to the Inter-American Commission of Women for its support and assistance.

Nicaraguan activities

Señora Josefa T. de Aguerri, the Nicaraguan delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women, reports that for over three years courses for Red Cross aides have been given at the Women's Normal School in Managua. More than fifty women are now enrolled in

the course, which includes child care, physiology, hygiene, and first aid. Señora de Aguerri, who is the head of the Nicaraguan Junior Red Cross, has written a number of short plays for teaching good health practices to children. These have been highly praised

by International Red Cross authorities for their effectiveness.

Nicaraguan women are active in the National Child Welfare Association and in maintaining an orphan asylum, where girls are cared for and taught useful occupations.

Notes on

Music in the Americas

CHARLES SEEGER

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Oral and written traditions in the Americas

WRITTEN and unwritten traditions of speech and of music seem to have flourished side by side in the New World since the coming of the Europeans. As recognizable entities one may be more developed, or be held in higher esteem, than the other within any particular area or social group at any particular time. But under ordinary conditions both can be presumed to have possessed for four centuries a repertory and standards of taste and technique propagated by a culturally coherent population or segment thereof. Comparison, either quantitative or qualitative, of the two traditions as *entities* is difficult. It is hard to say how many people at any one time serve or are served by either tradition or to what extent they both serve what number. It is fruitless to compare a folk tale to a novel or a folk song to a symphony. To a certain extent the two traditions seem to operate, as it were, upon two distinct levels of human experience, serving different social functions, in different ways, among different kinds of people and

conveying different kinds of content, more or less independent of one another. Yet, interpenetration and hybridization are continual. And in each tradition, the other may apparently function as an *accessory*, witness the "tradition" of Joachim, the violinist, and the "ballet book" of many a folk singer.

We must distinguish clearly between the two traditions as entities and as accessories in each other's service. Technically, the entity and its accessory actually function closely and almost unobserved. But as entities they are clearly distinguishable in respect to repertory, style and content. Utilization by one tradition of the materials of the other has been and still is common practice. In respect to any particular song or tale it is difficult indeed to trace "pure" ancestry. It is difficult and often superficial, though customary, to attempt to trace derivation of materials at specific points in the history of a song, story, motive or theme. The history of written tradition is extensive, but that of unwritten tradition meager or non-existent. Nevertheless, in view of predominance of characteristics, particular items

can be classed to a surprising extent as belonging to one or the other tradition. This is possible upon the basis of generalizations backed by examples from current repertory and with a certain amount of historical reconstruction.

As far as the Americas are concerned, this reconstruction might be set forth more or less as follows. The European conquerors probably brought with them to the New World a fairly representative body of traditions of speech and of music, both oral and written, though scholars and artists were probably under-represented. The same may be said for the first and each succeeding wave of colonization which continued from the conquering European countries for several centuries. Conditions for the flourishing of the fine arts of speech and music were obviously lacking, in spite of the fact that in a few places by the middle of the sixteenth century printing presses were set up, universities founded and cathedrals built. In most places, even centuries after the conquests of territory, fighting with indigenous populations was still in progress. Outside a very few small circles in as few capitals, most colonials lived the hard and rough lives of pioneers until well into the nineteenth century. At best there were few theaters and places of amusement such as are required for the elaborate functioning of popular arts. Oral tradition, then, with its minimum support in the form of fretted string instruments, harps, dulcimers and zithers, seems to have been the main channel of artistic expression as far as concrete productions were concerned—songs, dances, tales, etc.

As wealth was accumulated and religious observances became more elaborate, for lack of local production written works were imported from the mother countries. By 1800, *creoles* (American-born descendants of Europeans) and *mestizos* (American-born descendants of mixed European and Am-

erindian parentage) began to imitate current written tradition of Europe upon a substantial scale. By this time a third, the African, cultural element must have begun to make itself felt, though practically no evidence exists of substantial accomplishment in which it figures prominently at this early time.

In the course of the nineteenth century, three points are especially to be noted. First, in spite of increased production in the written tradition, the bulk of it exhibits a distinct lag in respect to the rapid changes in style and manner occurring in the leading European countries. Second, fresh waves of European influence in both written and oral traditions swept over the Americas, some coming simply as cultural goods and independent of actual immigration of persons. By the end of the century, unwritten traditions of folk music from practically every country of Europe must have permeated almost every region of the New World. As to written traditions, Italian opera and, to a lesser degree, cosmopolitan salon-music enjoyed surprising distribution. Third, by 1900, the oral traditions of dominant speech-music groups, which had been acclimated longest in the New World, were exhibiting variants of these traditions—variants which could only be explained as characteristic of the new environment.

In regions where, during the acculturation of almost four centuries, Amerindian traditions had been strongly mixed with European, as in the Andean regions and in Mexico, the variants were even more obviously "autochthonic" or American in the true sense of the word. Similarly, where African elements were strongly represented, Afro-American products were also quickly recognized as peculiar to the New World.

Up to that time, also, it would seem that the taste of the vast bulk of the people was, in both written and unwritten traditions, con-

servative if not reactionary, clinging to a small body of material and narrow range of taste with a greater tenacity than could be observed in the mother countries. A greater number of modifications seem to have established themselves, however, in the unwritten than in the written tradition, though when a new trend did actually appear in the written tradition, as in Whitman, it was a very striking one.

About the turn of the century, adepts in the written tradition, up to that time oblivious even of the unwritten tradition which had played such an important role in the evolution of the Romantic movement in Europe from the end of the eighteenth century on, began to stress European folk material. Floods of fairy tales were produced in emulation of the Brothers Grimm. European folk songs began to be printed in school textbooks upon a very large scale. This European material was presented to the American people in a highly manipulated form. Much of it had come from literary sources of considerable antiquity, already highly edited and adapted to fashions of written tradition. It was re-edited and re-adapted for nineteenth century European readers. It was this product—already far removed from the “folk”—which flooded the New World and was accepted as “folk literature” and “folk music.” Added to it was a considerable percentage of material created by adepts in the written tradition in imitation (*volksweise*) of the already highly manipulated “folk” material.

In some countries, notably Brazil, Mexico and the United States, a few, very few, writers and musicians “discovered” around 1900 the oral traditions of their immediate environment. At first, creole adepts of the still strictly European written tradition, dominant in the New World at the time, manipulated this local folk material in strict imitation of the European models. That is, they introduced local folk melodies into symphonic or other

musical fabrics totally European in character, and reported folklore in literary works in imitation of European styles. Gradually this practice has been followed by a sizable amount of systematic exploration of the local oral tradition, the founding of folklore societies and, eventually, the feeding back to the adepts of the oral tradition, by now increasingly literate, of its own products, sometimes in comparatively unaltered form, but more often much modified, through handling by newspapers, radio, phonograph, film and public school education. This modification would appear directly due to the manipulation of the material *en route* by adepts of the written tradition, as in the previously noted handling of materials of the European oral tradition.

Meanwhile, what the attitude of the adepts of the oral tradition in these and other regions of the New World was toward written tradition itself is not clear. Obviously, Italian opera, the phonograph, the printed page, increasing literacy, and eventually the radio and sound-film, brought to whole segments of populations a degree of impact by written traditions many times greater than that to which they had been accustomed. Manipulation, with consequent modification, was clearly, as in the reverse process, extensive. The first half of the twentieth century has been, therefore, one in which the two traditions have been thrown suddenly into a relationship closer, more complicated and more extensive than that of any existing since the times of the conquests. It is this particular relationship which is the subject of the present paper.

Little as we know of the history of oral tradition, we may infer from the history of written tradition that there are not only times when written tradition borrows extensively from unwritten, but also times when the reverse is true—the unwritten borrows extensively from the written. Similarly there may be times when they borrow less than usual

from each other. The first question which occurs to one may be, then: does this plundering occur both ways at once, or now one way and later another? The second question might be: what, if any, are the effects of the suddenly stepped-up, deliberate utilization or exploitation of the materials of the one tradition by the other, (1) upon the donor tradition, (2) upon the receiver? Finally, we might even ask: is the existence of unwritten tradition necessary? Is it desirable? Can oral tradition exist as an entity in a totally literate society? Must it be especially cultivated to endure in such a society?

Presumably, motivation for the giving of attention by adepts of one tradition to the materials, values or techniques of the other may be sought as much in a dissatisfaction with a situation within a tradition as in recognition of values in the other or in an impulsion from without, as, for instance, in the general situation known as the "shrinking world." In the United States, at least, all three forms of motivation seem to have been operative. During colonial and early post-colonial times, the percentage of literacy was very low. With prosperity, the drive for self-improvement and "progress" posed literacy as a *summm bonum*. Naturally, the unwritten arts were deprecated. They were associated with illiteracy, low levels of economic and social subsistence and other undesirable and shameful things. Need on the part of the literate eventually to give attention to the relation between written and unwritten traditions may have been partly due to a realization of the high value of the products of oral tradition, but also to a realization that the claims of literacy as a *summm bonum* were a bit overdrawn—that some cultural values have not been and perhaps cannot be expressed in written tradition. However this may be, "folkism" or "folklor-

ism" has become a factor of increasing importance throughout the hemisphere.

On the other hand, among the adepts of the oral tradition, no such consciously attentive movement can be observed. Sometimes reaching out for the benefits of industrial innovation, sometimes resisting it, vast masses of the population have in substance done for their oral traditions just what "leaders of thought" have done for written tradition. They have acquired effective knowledge of the opposite tradition, its products, techniques, standards of taste and type of content. But their understanding of these is quite different from that given by the regular adepts of written tradition. In the process they have modified oral tradition, just as the folkloristic writers and musicians have modified written tradition. Interestingly enough, this acculturative process within oral tradition has no name. We might refer to it as "bellettrism." The oral tradition has not organized itself philosophically as has the written.

In neither camp is the process yet complete. The borrowing (or plundering, whichever one chooses to call it) has proceeded so rapidly and along such surprisingly new lines that digestion is not always successful or unimpeded. Indeed, within each tradition there is still a very large body of opinion which holds that traffic with the other tradition is evil. I have seen in the country more than one radio set turned off when the music of the "city-fellers" began coming in. And the resistance of public school music teachers to Anglo-American folk music is proverbial.

We seem to have an answer, or at least a partial one, then, to our question, "Does the borrowing occur both ways at once?" between oral and written traditions. At the present time, it certainly does.

(To be concluded in the next issue)

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XXXVIII

ARGENTINA

26a. September 11, 1942. Decree No. 7,330, fixing maximum prices for plaster. (Mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, July 31, 1944.)

142a. June 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 16,740, making effective until December 31, 1944, the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 120,675 of May 27, 1942 (see Argentina 19a, BULLETIN, April 1943) insofar as they apply to firms manufacturing linseed oil for the Agricultural Production Regulation Board, and thus authorizing such firms to work their personnel longer hours. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 25, 1944.)

142b. July 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,943, approving maximum prices for articles of prime necessity in the Territory of Neuquén. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 29, 1944.)

142c. July 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 18,184, regulating the retail sale of beef in the Federal Capital. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 25, 1944.)

142d. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,674, including seed potatoes required by the Regional Agricultural Bureau of Balcarce in the highest transport priority classification established by Presidential Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121a, BULLETIN, January and April 1945), this decree to be effective from the date to November 15, 1944. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1944.)

142e. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,693, requiring the registration of all companies spinning, weaving, retailing or importing cotton yarn, and prescribing other measures to regulate the supply of cotton yarn for the textile industry

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR ^{8, 12} STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	¹ Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	² Bulgaria ³ Rumania ⁴ Hungary	
Argentina.....	⁵ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(⁷)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	⁸ 2-12-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	⁹ 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (¹⁰)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	¹¹ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	¹² G-2-11-45	¹² 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(¹³)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	⁸ 2-14-45	⁸ 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

and prevent speculation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1944.)

142f. July 12, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 17,694, fixing new maximum prices for alpargatas. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1944.)

142g. July 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 18,636, prescribing measures to insure the coal and charcoal supply of the Federal Capital and to prevent speculation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1944.)

142b. July 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 18,703, prohibiting the exportation of the telecommunications materials referred to in Resolution No. 4,832, Ministry of Agriculture, March 29, 1944 (see Argentina 108, BULLETIN, August and September 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1944.)

142i. July 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 18,840, determining the compensation to be paid producers who sold their 1943-44 crop corn before May 3, 1944 at prices lower than those fixed by Presidential Decree No. 11,433 of that date (see Argentina 121a, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1944.)

142j. July 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 18,841, approving conditions fixed for bids to supply the country with 120,000,000 liters of ethyl alcohol a year (see Argentina 106a, BULLETIN, September 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1944.)

143a. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1944.)

145b. July 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 19,235, amending Decree No. 7,330 of September 11, 1942, and fixing new ceiling prices for plaster. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 31, 1944.)

191s. October 26, 1944. Decree-Law No. 29,376, reorganizing the air force and setting it up as a separate unit of the armed services. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 18, 1944.)

193a. November 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,376, permitting the manufacture of glass containers for olive oil smaller than those authorized by Presidential Decree No. 8,112 of March 31, 1944 (see Argentina 109, BULLETIN, September 1944) and prescribing size and weight requirements for such containers. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

195a. November 15, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,994, rejecting bids to supply ethyl alcohol made in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 18,841 of July 19, 1944 (see 142j above) and

approving conditions fixed for new bidding. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 2, 1944.)

198. November 23, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 31,808, fixing the allotments of gasoline for various types of vehicles to be granted by the Y.P.F. during the first third of 1945, and making other provisions to insure rigid enforcement of gasoline rationing. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 7, 1944.)

199. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 32,534, fixing basic prices for wheat and flax of the 1944-45 crop. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 4, 1944.)

200. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 32,535, requiring flour millers to use 70% 1943-44 crop wheat in their milling, and fixing the prices at which they may acquire it from the Agricultural Production Regulation Board. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 4, 1944.)

201. December 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 32,473, including unsorted sacks for use in the harvest in the highest transport priority classification established by Presidential Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121a, BULLETIN, January and April 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, December 13, 1944.)

202. December 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 32,635, fixing new maximum prices for Portland cement. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 12, 1944.)

BRAZIL

99a. April 20, 1944. (Mentioned in *Diário Oficial*, December 20, 1944.)

148. December 12, 1944. Resolution No. 84, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing for price control of imported fresh fruits, creating the Foreign Fruits Price Control Commission, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 14, 1944.)

149. December 14, 1944. Resolution, National Petroleum Council, fixing the prices for Diesel oil and fuel oil in bulk deliveries in Belém, Recife, Salvador, Rio de Janeiro, Santos and São Paulo. (*Diário Oficial*, December 23, 1944.)

150. December 18, 1944. Order No. 70, Transportation Service, Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce, allowing, in view of the provisioning difficulties caused by the war, the operation of "free" open air markets on Sundays and holidays. (*Diário Oficial*, December 27, 1944.)

151. December 18, 1944. Order No. 317,

Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, establishing the manner in which retail sale prices of pharmaceutical products must be posted. (*Diário Oficial*, December 19, 1944.)

152. December 19, 1944. Order No. 319, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing prices for ice in the Federal District. (*Diário Oficial*, December 20, 1944.)

153. December 19, 1944. Order No. 321, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing for the shipment and distribution of the 1944-45 Paraná and Santa Catarina potato crop, and making the State Supply Commission of São Paulo responsible for fixing prices and controlling transportation and distribution. (*Diário Oficial*, December 20, 1944.)

154. December 19, 1944. Order No. 322, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing for the shipment and distribution of the grain produced in Paraná and Santa Catarina, and making the State Supply Commission of São Paulo responsible for fixing the price to be paid at the depot and for supervising the transportation of the grain. (*Diário Oficial*, December 20, 1944.)

155. December 19, 1944. Order No. 323, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, making detailed provisions governing the supply and distribution of meat, regulating the operation of slaughterhouses, meat-drying plants, and cold storage plants, and repealing all contradictory legislation, including Resolution No. 36 of April 20, 1944 (see Brazil 99a, BULLETIN, October 1944 and above). (*Diário Oficial*, December 20, 1944.)

156. December 21, 1944. Resolution No. 86, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, amending Resolution No. 44 of June 16, 1944 (see Brazil 103b, BULLETIN, November 1944) and fixing new prices for onions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 22, 1944.)

157. December 23, 1944. Order No. 326, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing retail ceiling prices for bottled mineral water in the Federal District, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 26, 1944.)

158. December 23, 1944. Resolution No. 87, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, lowering the price per can of boiled meat with gravy. (*Diário Oficial*, December 27, 1944.)

159. December 23, 1944. Resolution No. 88, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobiliza-

tion, fixing ceiling prices for poultry and eggs in the States of Minas Gerais, São Paulo, Espírito Santo, Rio de Janeiro and the Federal District. (*Diário Oficial*, December 27, 1944.)

160. December 27, 1944. Resolution No. 89, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, establishing rules for the operation of the General Foodstuffs Depot of the Prefecture of the Federal District. (*Diário Oficial*, December 28, 1944.)

161. December 28, 1944. Resolution No. 7, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing quotas for the month of January, 1945, for the distribution of coal produced in Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul and Paraná. (*Diário Oficial*, December 29, 1944.)

162. December 29, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,024, authorizing manufacturers of rubber articles to use synthetic rubber in the manufacture of their products, in order to increase production and save natural rubber; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, December 30, 1944.)

163. December 29, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,211, providing that, for the duration of the war, the minimum age for work by miners' sons in the coal mines shall be eighteen; and permitting miners' sons over sixteen who have completed their primary schooling to do daytime work in auxiliary services at the surface of the mines. (*Diário Oficial*, January 3, 1945.)

164. December 29, 1944. Order No. 929, Ministry of Agriculture, providing for the acquisition of the Rio Grande do Sul wheat crop by domestic mills on a quota basis until April 30, 1945; specifying that none of this crop shall be allotted to mills in Santa Catarina and Paraná; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, January 2, 1945.)

165. December 29, 1944. Order No. 930, Ministry of Agriculture, providing that the wheat crop in Santa Catarina and Paraná shall be totally absorbed by the local mills, until April 30, 1945, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, January 2, 1945.)

166. December 29, 1944. Order No. 931, fixing higher minimum prices for wheat in order to stimulate wheat production. (*Diário Oficial*, January 2, 1945.)

167. December 30, 1944. Resolution No. 90, Supply Service, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, changing the price list established by Resolu-

tion No. 88 of December 23, 1944 (see 159 above) and fixing new maximum prices for eggs. (*Diário Oficial*, January 3, 1945.)

168. January 8, 1945. Order, Ministry of War, approving provisional instructions regarding the organization and duties of the commands of the Cavalry Corps, Divisions of Infantry and of Cavalry, and Corps Areas. (*Diário Oficial*, January 11, 1945.)

169. January 12, 1945. Order No. 330, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, regulating the distribution of the quota of chassis for trucks and buses assigned to Brazil for 1945 by the United States authorities. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

170. January 12, 1945. Order No. 331, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, regulating the sale price of penicillin imported from the United States and extending the provisions of Order No. 151 of October 28, 1943 (see Brazil 92*u*, BULLETIN, June 1944) to apply to the prices of accessory pharmaceutical products. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

171. January 12, 1945. Order No. 332, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing the margin of profit permissible in domestic sales of medicinal raw materials imported on a quota basis which were listed in Order No. 252 of July 31, 1944 (see Brazil 109, BULLETIN, December 1944) and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

178. November 17, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 26, providing that Costa Ricans who have been prisoners of war and those who have been confined in concentration camps be indemnified from funds confiscated from enemy governments or from enemy nationals (see Costa Rica 22, 37*c*, and 60, BULLETIN, June and November 1942, June 1943), and prescribing procedure therefor. (*La Gaceta*, December 12, 1944.)

179. December 13, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 34, approving the agreement of September 28, 1944 between Costa Rica and the Export-Import Bank of Washington amending the agreement of July 9, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 26*a*, BULLETIN, January 1943), which provided credits to aid in the stabilization of Costa Rican financial and agricultural economy and to supply the necessary dollar exchange to

enable Costa Rica to maintain indispensable imports. (*La Gaceta*, December 15, 1944.)

180. January 13, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2, approving distribution of sugar prices to be paid by the Board for the Protection of Sugar Cane Growing, as agreed upon by that board and the National Council of Production (see Costa Rica 54,133, and 154, BULLETIN, March 1943, March and August 1944). (*La Gaceta*, January 14, 1945.)

181. January 27, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 6, suspending certain constitutional guarantees for a period of sixty days. (*La Gaceta*, January 30, 1945.)

182. January 29, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 43, amending and amplifying Law No. 26 of December 12, 1942 and Law No. 11 of October 1, 1943 (see Costa Rica 60 and 130, BULLETIN, June 1943 and February 1944) by providing for the issue of expropriation notes, and prescribing procedure therefor. (*La Gaceta*, January 31, 1945.)

183. January 29, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 44, amending and amplifying Law No. 36 of December 23, 1944 in regard to credit arrangements for imports. (*La Gaceta*, January 30, 1945.)

184. February 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2, approving a plan proposed by the National Bank of Costa Rica for placing the stimulation of agricultural production under control of the National Council of Production, the Advisory Technical Commission, and the Agricultural Production Section of the National Bank of Costa Rica. (*La Gaceta*, February 7, 1945.)

CUBA

661*a*. October 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3373, granting a wage subsidy to port workers, based on the difference in monthly tonnage imported beginning October 1, 1944 and that imported during 1939. (*Monthly Digest*, Cuban Chamber of Commerce in the United States, New York City, January 15, 1945.)

692*a*. December 27, 1944. Resolution No. 38, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 5). (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945, p. 3080.)

702*a*. January 11, 1945. Resolution No. 45, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 8). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 9, 1945, p. 2949.)

704a. January 16, 1945. Resolution No. 46, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 9). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 9, 1945, p. 2950.)

706. (Corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, January 27, 1945, p. 1953.)

706a. January 19, 1945. Resolution No. 292, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring peanut oil manufacturers to sell all the peanut cake and flour obtained as by-products to forage manufacturers and dealers, who must in turn sell 70 percent of the quantity they acquire to milk producers; fixing ceiling prices for peanut cake and flour; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 31, 1945, p. 2209.)

706b. January 19, 1945. Resolution No. 293, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing rules and regulations governing the surrender of used tires and tubes by those entitled to receive new ones. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 30, 1945, p. 2114.)

706c. January 20, 1945. Resolution No. 47, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 10). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 9, 1945, p. 2953.)

706d. January 22, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 297, authorizing the Institutes of Secondary Education to grant the proper degrees to students who have completed their course of studies but who because of the war have not been able to present their birth certificates. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 3, 1945, p. 2438.)

706e. January 22, 1945. Resolution No. 294, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing quotas of tires and tubes to be distributed among the companies engaged in interurban and inter-provincial passenger transportation and those engaged in public motor freight transportation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 30, 1945, p. 2117.)

708. January 24, 1945. Resolution No. 48, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products (List No. 11). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945, p. 3077.)

709. January 24, 1945. Resolution No. 295, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, suspending until further notice the effectiveness of Resolution No. 245 of July 28, 1944 (see Cuba, 628, BULLETIN, November 1944) regarding sales of wheat flour. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 30, 1945, p. 2117.)

710. January 27, 1945. Resolution No. 297, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring that beginning February 11, 1945, all types of

packaged rice shall be sold at the same official prices which are in force for rice of the same type sold in bulk. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 3, 1945, p. 2436.)

711. January 30, 1945. Resolution No. 49, Ministry of Commerce, partially amending Resolutions Nos. 38, 34 and 40 of December 27 and 13, 1944 and January 4, 1945 (see 692a above and Cuba 688b and 696, BULLETIN, April 1945), fixing official prices for specified pharmaceutical products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945, p. 3080.)

712. January 30, 1945. Resolution No. 296, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring proprietors of establishments selling milk to post the ceiling prices established for grade A milk by Presidential Decree No. 2,725 of August 26, 1944 (see Cuba 645, BULLETIN, November 1944) and for grade B milk by Presidential Decree No. 103 of January 16, 1945 (see Cuba 704, BULLETIN, April 1945), and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 2, 1945, p. 2339.)

713. January 31, 1945. Resolution No. 50, Ministry of Commerce, fixing official prices for a specified dietetic product. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1945, p. 3109.)

714. January 31, 1945. Resolution No. 52, Ministry of Commerce, dictating the measures necessary for the proper enforcement of Presidential Decree No. 89 of January 12, 1945 (see Cuba 703, BULLETIN, April 1945), which granted a subsidy, amounting to exemption from customs duties, on imported wheat flour; and creating the Wheat Flour Import Subsidy Office to administer the decree. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1945, p. 3110.)

715. January 31, 1944. Resolution No. 6, Coffee Stabilization Institute, declaring the sale and transfer of sixty percent of the existing stocks of ordinary raw coffee allotted for national consumption to be subject to the control and regulation of this Institute; and making other provisions designed to prevent speculation and to insure a supply of ordinary coffee at a reasonable price. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 2, 1945, p. 2374.)

716. February 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 304, suspending, until such time as Congress shall legislate on the matter, evictions ordered from urban property, provided that the lessee or sub-lessee pay the rent owed at any time before the execution of the order; and making other pertinent

provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 1, 1945, p. 2305.)

717. February 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 345, declaring necessary to the public interest the occupation and supervision by the state of a specified sugar mill in order to insure its normal operation, and making provisions to implement the enforcement of the decree. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 7, 1945, p. 2754.)

718. February 1, 1945. Resolution No. 298, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing special quotas of tires and inner tubes to meet the needs of the Ministry of Public Works and of the carriers and harvesters of small crops in the region of Güines. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 8, 1945, p. 2786.)

719. February 2, 1945. Resolution No. 843, Ministry of Labor, explaining that the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 117 of January 17, 1945 (see Cuba 705, BULLETIN, April 1945), which granted increased wages to workers in the sugar industry, are in effect from January 1 to December 31, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 7, 1945, p. 2758.)

720. February 7, 1945. Resolution No. 54, Ministry of Commerce, supplementing and partially amending Resolution No. 27 of November 15, 1944 (see Cuba 680, BULLETIN, March 1945) regarding price determination and declaration of stocks of imported pharmaceutical products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1945, p. 3113.)

721. February 7, 1945. Resolution No. 299, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, allotting a specified quota of tires and tubes to the National Development Commission for use by vehicles employed in highway repairs and construction. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 10, 1945, p. 2981.)

722. February 7, 1945. Resolution No. 300, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a special quota of tires and tubes for the Cuban Electrical Company to equip vehicles used in maintenance of electrical equipment. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1945, p. 3113.)

723. February 7, 1945. Resolution No. 301, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing ceiling prices for specified iron, steel and copper articles, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1945, p. 3113; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, February 15, 1945, p. 3365.)

724. February 7, 1945. Resolution No. 7, Coffee

Stabilization Institute, requiring declarations of all stocks of unhulled coffee and coffee in parchment and requiring detailed statements covering the subsequent sale of such coffee. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 8, 1945, p. 2786.)

725. February 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 409, putting the National Transport Commission in complete control of civil air traffic in Cuba; providing that for the duration of the war any airport or landing field of any commercial aviation company will be considered of public utility and may be used by other authorized transport companies, domestic or foreign, upon payment of a fee fixed by the Commission; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945, p. 3014.)

726. February 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 410, clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 349 of February 19, 1944 (see Cuba 532, BULLETIN, June 1944) regarding the reduced freight rates on sugar acquired by the Commodity Credit Corporation or other agencies of the United States government. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945, p. 3016.)

727. February 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 431, repealing paragraphs one and three of Presidential Decree No. 3,371 of September 29, 1944 (see Cuba 660, BULLETIN, January 1945), and raising the wages of port and maritime workers 20 percent over the basic wage in force on September 1, 1944. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 14, 1945, p. 3233.)

728. February 8, 1945. Resolution No. 302, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, allotting quotas of fuel and of tires and tubes to the National Development Commission for use by vehicles employed in highway repairs and construction. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 14, 1945, p. 3205.)

729. February 9, 1945. Resolution No. 303, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing quotas of tires and tubes for the company in charge of bus service in Habana and for companies engaged in interurban and interprovincial passenger service throughout the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 15, 1945, p. 3299.)

730. February 9, 1945. Resolution No. 304, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, making illegal the slaughter of cattle on Tuesday, as well as the distribution, sale and consumption of the meat of such cattle. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 16, 1945, p. 3402.)

731. February 12, 1945. Resolution No. 847, Ministry of Labor, clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 117 of January 17, 1945 (see Cuba 705, BULLETIN, April 1945), which granted increased wages to workers in the sugar industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 16, 1945, p. 3403.)

732. February 12, 1945. Resolution No. 848, Ministry of Labor, further clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 117 of January 17, 1945 (see Cuba 705, BULLETIN, April 1945), which granted increased wages to workers in the sugar industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 16, 1945, p. 3404.)

733. February 14, 1945. Resolution No. 850, Ministry of Labor, fixing provisional minimum wages for highway workers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1945, p. 3497.)

734. February 14, 1945. Resolution No. 305, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a general quota of used tires and tubes to meet the demands of the services entitled to them; making a special increase in the quota of the Ministry of Public Works; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1945, p. 3496.)

EL SALVADOR

97. November 17, 1944. Executive Decree amending the Executive Decree of July 7, 1944 (see El Salvador 89, BULLETIN, November 1944) so as to allow tires and tubes needed for the harvest to be admitted directly by the Customs on the authorization of the Committee on Economic Coordination. (*Diario Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

98. November 17, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 132, permitting for a thirty-day period the duty-free entrance of unrefined Central American sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, November 22, 1944.)

99. November 28, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 152, authorizing distillers to use molasses, pressed brown sugar and cane juice indiscriminately in making the *chichas* from which alcohols and aguardientes are distilled. (*Diario Oficial*, December 6, 1944.)

GUATEMALA

129. January 18, 1945. Decree No. 49, Revolutionary Junta, repealing Presidential Decree No. 2,981 of October 20, 1942 (see Guatemala 44,

BULLETIN, February 1943) and lowering the tax on matches of domestic manufacture. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 18, 1945.)

130. January 20, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 31, approving Decree No. 32 of the Revolutionary Junta (see Guatemala 126, BULLETIN, April 1945) which put telegraph, cable, and radio offices under government control. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 3, 1945.)

131. January 22, 1945. Decree No. 53, Revolutionary Junta, withdrawing the recognition extended by Guatemala in 1936 to the Falangist government of Spain. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 24, 1945.)

HONDURAS

35a. July 19, 1943. Presidential Order No. 117, approving the regulations drawn up by the Governing Board of the Faculty of Pharmacy concerning the importation and domestic consumption of quinine. (*La Gaceta*, February 3, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

50a. October 21, 1943. Resolution No. 168, General Office of Industry and Commerce, requiring flour millers to maintain a reserve supply of wheat in their warehouses. (Mentioned in *Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, September 1944.)

551. April 29, 1944. Decree No. 3,491, empowering the Office of Industry and Development of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce to determine the length of time wheat flour should remain in storage at the mill. (Mentioned in *Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, September 1944.)

571. August 3, 1944. Decree No. 4,706, fixing prices for roasted yerba maté for domestic consumption. (Mentioned in *Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, October 1944.)

572. August 11, 1944. Resolution No. 15, Office of Industry and Development, fixing monthly quotas of coconut oil and tallow to be furnished the soap manufacturers by the oil manufacturers for the period from July to December, 1944. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, September 1944.)

573. August 14, 1944. Resolution No. 16, Office of Industry and Development, requiring flour mills to keep flour in storage for a certain length of time, and to maintain a specified amount on hand; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Paraguay*

Industrial y Comercial, Asunción, September 1944.)

57_a. August 18, 1944. Presidential Decree forbidding official institutions to acquire merchandise of any kind from firms on the proclaimed list. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, September 1944.)

57_{a1}. August 26, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, fixing the percentages of yerba maté that exporters should allot for domestic consumption, and fixing prices for processed yerba maté. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, September, 1944.)

(Correction) Item No. 57_a, BULLETIN, March 1945, should have been numbered 57_b.

(Correction) Item No. 57_b, BULLETIN, March 1945, should have been numbered 57_c.

61. (Correction) October 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 5,439. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, October, 1944.)

68. December 21, 1944. Resolution No. 5, Paraguayan Meat Corporation, fixing summer prices for beef cattle from a specified locality destined for public consumption; repealing articles 1-5 of Resolution No. 1 of September 18, 1944 (see Paraguay 58, BULLETIN, January 1945); and making other pertinent provisions. (*El País*, Asunción, December 23, 1944.)

69. December 23, 1944. Resolution No. 6, Paraguayan Meat Corporation, establishing new wholesale and retail prices for meat for the capital. (*El País*, Asunción, December 28, 1944.)

70. December 28, 1944. Announcement by the Paraguay Meat Corporation of the postponement until January 31, 1945, of the deadline for the presentation by livestock owners of the declarations called for in Resolution No. 3 of October 26, 1944 (see Paraguay 62, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*El País*, Asunción, December 29, 1944.)

PERU

144. November 26, 1944. Supreme Decree putting into effect the recommendations of the commission created by the Supreme Decree of July 20, 1944 (see Peru 130_a, BULLETIN, March 1945) to study wage readjustments, and increasing the minimum wages of private employees in the provinces of Lima and Callao to enable them to meet the increased costs of living. (*El Peruano*, November 29, 1944.)

145. December 29, 1944. Supreme Resolution

authorizing, in view of increased costs of operation, a new system of fares on city bus lines in Lima. (*El Peruano*, January 3, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

163_a. August 28, 1944. Ratification by Venezuela of the UNRRA Agreement signed provisionally by its representative in Washington on November 9, 1943. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 4, 1944.)

(Correction) Item No. 163, BULLETIN, January 1945, should have been numbered 163_b.

185_a. November 10, 1944. Resolution No. 43, Ministry of Labor and Transportation, taking measures to end a labor conflict detrimental to the war effort: granting an increase in pay to employees of a certain wage level in the oil industry; and denying the petitions presented by two specified unions of oil industry employees. (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 10, 1944.)

193. December 13, 1944. Resolution No. 130, Agricultural Economy Office, Ministry of Agriculture and Stockraising, requiring producers and owners of specified kinds of rubber to sell their product to the Agricultural and Livestock Bank at prices fixed by the resolution; and repealing Resolutions Nos. 2-E. A. of October 9, 1942 and February 18, 1943 (see Venezuela 67_c and 96, BULLETIN, April and July 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1944.)

194. December 20, 1944. Resolution No. 133, Agricultural Economy Office, Ministry of Agriculture and Stockraising, requiring producers and owners of a specified kind of rubber to sell their product to the Agricultural and Livestock Bank at the prices fixed by the resolution. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 21, 1944.)

195. December 22, 1944. Resolution No. 19, National Supply Commission, repealing Resolution No. 14 of November 16, 1944 (see Venezuela 186, BULLETIN, March 1945); fixing new sale prices for raw milk in specified regions of the country; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 22, 1944.)

196. December 27, 1944. Resolution No. 20, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling prices for a list of specified drugs, medicines and articles of medical equipment, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 29, 1944, Supplementary Edition No. 116.)

197. January 10, 1945. Resolution No. 22, National Supply Commission, providing that a

fixed quantity of tires shall be allotted each month for distribution among taxis in the Department of Libertador, fixing fares and zones for taxi service, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 10, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

156*a*. August 8, 1944. Ratification by Venezuela of the UNRRA agreement signed provisionally by its representative in Washington on November 9, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, Caracas, December 4, 1944.)

166*c*. September 28, 1944. Contract between the Government of Costa Rica and the Export-Import Bank of Washington, supplementing and amending the contract signed July 9, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 26*a*, BULLETIN, January 1943), which provided credits to aid in the stabilization of Costa Rican financial and agricultural economy and to supply the necessary dollar exchange to enable Costa Rica to maintain indispensable imports. (*La Gaceta*, San José, December 15, 1944.)

172*i*. December 12, 1944. Agreement between the Governments of Brazil and the United States extending until March 31, 1946, the effectiveness of the agreement signed February 8, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 137, BULLETIN, April 1944), providing for the payment by the Rubber Development Corporation of a premium of 33½ percent on the basic price of 45 cents per pound, f. o. b. Belém, for Acre fine rubber, washed and dry. (*Diário Oficial*, January 11, 1945.)

173*a*. January 8, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Haiti clarifying and supplementing the agreement concluded January 24, 1941 regarding a program for cooperative rubber investigations in Haiti. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 11, 1945.)

175. February 11, 1945. Statement issued by President Roosevelt, Premier Stalin, and Prime Minister Churchill following the Crimea Conference, regarding plans for the military defeat and occupation of Germany; the establishment of order in liberated Europe, and specifically in Poland and Yugoslavia; the Polish boundaries; and the calling of a conference of United Nations to meet at San Francisco in the United States on April 25, 1945. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 18, 1945.)

176. February 14, 1945. Signature by Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay, and Peru of the Declaration by the United Nations of January 1, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 18, 1945.)

177. February 19, 1945. Wartime agreement between the Governments of the United States and Canada regarding military air-transport routes operated by one country over the territory of the other. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 25, 1945.)

178. February 20, 1945. Signature by Venezuela of the Declaration by the United Nations of January 1, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 25, 1945.)

179. February 21, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of Guatemala and the United States providing for the detail of a military aviation mission by the United States to serve in Guatemala. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 25, 1945.)

180. February 24, 1945. Signature by Uruguay of the Declaration by the United Nations of January 1, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 25, 1945.)

181. February 28, 1945. Agreements between the Government of the United States and the Provisional Government of France negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, March 4, 1945.)

182. March 8, 1945. Final Act of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, signed at Mexico City by delegates of twenty American governments, providing for extensive cooperation in the prosecution of the war, the transition to a peacetime economy, and the maintenance of peace; strengthening the inter-American system; and making other pertinent recommendations (see pages —). (*Report on the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, Mexico City, February 21-March 8, 1945*, submitted to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union by the Director General.)



Pan American News

Book Exhibit at the Pan American Union

ON October 12, 1945, the First Pan American Book Exhibit under the auspices of the Pan American Union will be opened in Washington. This is an appropriate day to begin in the field of cultural relations a new stage in the discovery of America by itself. Through recent books published in the twenty-one American republics the exhibit will promote cultural interchange among the nations of the continent and publicize the new books of every country, since publishing houses throughout the Hemisphere plan to send to the Pan American Union collections of books which they consider representative of their output. The exhibit will remain open a month in the building of the Pan American Union

and is expected to be the first of an annual series. By the number of acceptances already received it is assured that many well-known firms will participate. After the exhibit is closed, the books received will become the property of the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union, which already has a collection of more than 135,000 books and 700 maps dealing with the Americas.

Coffee prices

The State Department of the United States announced on March 22, 1945 that, following the request of fourteen coffee-producing countries of this hemisphere made to the Secretary of State at Mexico City on March 8 for an increase in green coffee ceiling prices, this subject had been discussed in

detail with the other agencies of this Government concerned with food distribution and price control.

The coffee-producing countries concerned have now been informed that this Government genuinely regrets that it is not possible to accede to the request for increased prices. The communication said in part:

It is the view of this Government that its decision not to increase the maximum prices of green coffee is essential to the maintenance of price controls that are adequate to withstand the inflationary pressures with which this country is now faced. By adhering steadfastly to the purpose of resisting to the maximum any action which threatens the success of price control, it is the hope of this Government that it may be successful in preventing uncontrolled inflation in this country and at the same time contribute to the attainment of the same objective throughout the Americas.

It will be recalled that similar considerations were involved when the petition of the Inter-American Coffee Board¹ for an increase was denied in November 1944, by the Office of Price Administration and the War Food Administration, a decision which was reviewed and confirmed by the Director of the Office of Economic Stabilization on December 19, 1944.

Inheritance rights in Haiti

Haiti's new family law removes from much of its population an incapacity to inherit property which dates back to the Civil Code of 1826 and was borrowed from France's Napoleonic code. Haitians estimate that 75 percent of the country's inhabitants were born outside of marriage, and that of these technical illegitimates about nine-tenths were born of stable family unions where parents acknowledge their responsibilities.

Marriage was not customary in the early

¹ See an open letter to the President of the National Coffee Association from the Chairman of the Board of Directors, Pan American Coffee Bureau, BULLETIN, February 1945.

years of Haiti's independence because in colonial days marriage had been considered a perquisite of race, one to which Negroes, whether slave or free, should not presume to aspire. The Constitution of 1805 met this condition by announcing that "marriage is authorized by the government;" and on the very day of the promulgation of the Constitution a law was passed which provided that children recognized by both parents were to have equal inheritance rights with legitimate children—thus clothing in forms of law Dessalines' dramatic declaration that the revolution had legitimized every Haitian.

Haiti's Civil Code of 1826 took over almost bodily the Napoleonic code which had been put into force in France twenty years earlier. One of its provisions limited the inheritance rights of illegitimate children to one-third of the share of legitimate heirs, although it required of them various duties toward their parents. Haitian jurists have long felt that the law was ill adapted to Haitian conditions, and have pointed out that even in France, where the illegitimacy rate is so low that the child born out of wedlock is exceptional, there has been a succession of modifying laws to ameliorate his position.

Besides restoring the old-time rights of succession, the law of December 1944 limits the proportion of an estate which may be devised by special bequest, to the disadvantage of any children, whether born in or out of wedlock. It also opens the way to various means of establishing paternity, and recognizes the child's stake in his own identity by allowing him, after he is of age, to veto a new paternity claim or contest an old one.

Railway fuel in Argentina

Because of the reduction of coal and petroleum imports into Argentina owing to the war, the railways were obliged to resort to other fuels. The following table shows the figures

for consumption of fuels of various kinds in 1942 and 1943:

	1942 Tons	1943 Tons
Coal	319,082	269,826
Petroleum	558,332	469,391
Corn	47,049	28,797
Wood	3,535,987	4,475,036
Oil cakes	17,931	88,423

The total cost of the fuel consumed in 1942 was 91,371,000 pesos, while in 1943 it amounted to 134,156,000 pesos. It is considered that the fuel burned in 1942 was equivalent to 2,782,000 tons of coal and in 1943 to 3,076,000 tons.

Pan American activities, New York City Schools

Dr. Henry E. Hein has been for some time the able and efficient chairman of the Committee on Inter-American Cooperation of the Board of Education of the City of New York. The BULLETIN therefore regrets that in publishing in its March 1945 issue the article on *Learning Spanish with the Cubans* by E. Virginia Massimine (an article sent by a Cuban correspondent) an error was made in her title, giving the impression that her Pan American activities in New York were city-wide and thus confusing her with Dr. Hein.

We see by the papers that—

- Gabriela Peláez Echeverri became a Doctor of Law and Political Sciences at the National University in Bogotá last November, the second *Colombian* woman to take a law doctorate course at that institution. Her thesis was a study of women's civil rights.
- The mayor of *Rio de Janeiro* has authorized the establishment of 20 public libraries in

various parts of the city. They will have no reading rooms but will lend books for ten days free of charge to anyone who can identify himself properly.

- The National Library of *Brazil* will soon open a course for librarians. It will be available to persons from all parts of the country and fifteen scholarships will be offered. It is hoped in this way to be able to build up a well trained staff for future libraries.

- Coke ovens have been installed by the Mining Bank of *Peru* near Oyón to utilize local coal for the manufacture of domestic coke to supply Lima, Callao, and other cities. The ovens are situated about 13,000 feet above sea level.

- The *Argentine* Development Commission exhibited in Buenos Aires the books contributed by almost 100 publishing firms, paintings, sculptures, work of the Advanced School of Fine Arts, and a collection of artistic ceramics which will be circulated in the other American countries in cooperation with the respective national development committees. A second exhibit was composed of samples of foodstuffs and food products, including canned meat and dried vegetables, eggs, and milk. The National Nutrition Institute prepared large wall panels on proper diets to accompany the exhibit.

- The Academy of Guaraní Culture has been established in Asunción. The Guaraní Indians were the original inhabitants of *Paraguay* and their language is still spoken by many of its inhabitants.

- The house that was the birthplace of Sarmiento and the cell occupied by San Martín in a Dominican convent at San Juan, *Argentina*, have both been restored by the National Commission of Museums and Historic Monuments after being damaged by the earthquake of January 15, 1944. Sarmiento's house,



PAN AMERICAN UNION LIBRARY EXHIBIT

Recent exhibits in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union have turned on the following topics: Christmas in Latin America; Postwar Planning; Inter-American Conferences; Mexico Forges Ahead; The Pan American Day Material issued by the Pan American Union; and Rio Branco of Brazil. Any of these exhibits, which include pictures, copies of the BULLETIN with pertinent articles, and books bearing on the respective subject, may be borrowed by schools, libraries, or clubs. The illustration shows the exhibit on Mexico, which was assembled by Eugene Ysita of the Union's Division of Economic Information, in cooperation with the Library. The chart and the amusing little figures were his work.

which has been turned into a museum, was greatly weakened by the shock and has now been strengthened. San Martín stayed in San Juan in 1815 to prepare his army to cross the Andes and fight for Chilean independence.

- Two credit cooperatives for *Venezuelan* workers, one at Valera and the other at Mérida, have successfully carried out housing projects for their members. The workers themselves helped to build the houses.

- An exhibit of modern *Uruguayan* painting chosen by a joint Argentine-Uruguayan committee was shown not long ago in Buenos Aires. It received favorable comment in the Argentine papers.

- The municipal pawnshop in *Buenos Aires* has been converted into the municipal bank

of the city. It will still carry on a small loan business; six months after the new decree went into effect no private pawn shops were allowed to operate in Buenos Aires. The bank, which has savings and mortgage divisions, will be the financial agent of the city and the depository of municipal funds.

- Last year's cattle census in *Chile* showed 2,305,713 head, a small decrease as compared with the figure for 1943; since 1938, when there were more than 2,600,000 head of cattle in Chile, there has been a slight downward trend. Cautín was the province with the largest number of cattle in 1944; Valdivia came next, then Osorno, Santiago, and Malleco.

- Business and pleasure journeys into *Ecuador* are made easier for *Colombians* by a

law which provides for special temporary permission to cross the border. Special permits, which are issued without charge, may be obtained at Ipiales or at department capitals upon presentation of the necessary papers, including a health certificate. They are granted to anyone who is Colombian by birth, also to Colombians born in other American countries who have been naturalized for at least five years, and to other Colombians who have been naturalized for at least ten years. Ecuador has made similar provision for Ecuadoreans who wish to travel in Colombia.

- Air line officials estimated early this year that the number of passengers who are now traveling by air between *Chile* and the *United States* is greater than the combined total of air and sea travelers in the days when regular steamship sailings were maintained.

- Rebuilt machinery from the *United States* made possible the opening of numbers of small textile, cement, and drug factories in *Colombia* during 1944; many of them are located in the department of Antioquia.

- The *Argentine* Government is guaranteeing to farmers a price of 72 cents a bushel on wheat, the highest minimum granted by the Government since a guaranteed minimum price policy was instituted in 1933. It is reported that because of droughts the wheat crop this year will not be large.

- *Buenos Aires* is to have a municipal museum. It will take over all the material from the defunct Museum of Colonial Art having to do with the Argentine capital and will contain other material bearing on the development of the city and its history. It will also have a specialized library.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Annual subscription rates in all countries of the Pan American Union: English edition, \$1.50; Spanish edition, \$1.00; Portuguese edition, \$1.00; single copies, any edition, 15 cents each (prior to 1935, 25 cents each). An additional charge of 75 cents per year is made on each edition for subscriptions in countries outside the Pan American Union

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Bibliographies on Pan American topics, such as Inter-American Relations, History, and Description, Children's Books on Latin America, Hemisphere Defense, Bookstores and Publishers in Latin America—Material in English on Latin American Literature, and other topics

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship among the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its

affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences of American States.

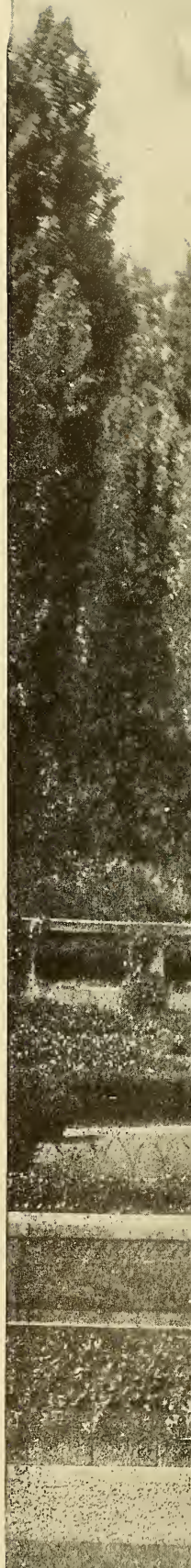


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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: XOCHIPILLI, THE AZTEC GOD OF FLOWERS, IN THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT

President Roosevelt's name will always be synonymous with the Good Neighbor Policy.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 6



JUNE 1945

Franklin Delano Roosevelt *In Memoriam*

As the peoples of all the peace-loving nations of the world were mourning the sudden passing of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, thirty-first President of the United States, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union met in solemn and sorrowing session to pay him a final tribute of homage and respect.

The meeting took place in the Governing Board room of the Pan American Union at noon on April 14, Pan American Day. Ordinarily, on Pan American Day each year the flags of the twenty-one American Republics fly gaily from their standards at the edge of the plaza in front of the Union. This year only one flag flew—the Stars and Stripes, at half mast, in honor of the man who gave name, impetus, and vigorous life to the Good Neighbor Policy that since 1933 has so firmly planted the seeds of friendship, understanding, good will, and cooperation among the nations of America.

The Governing Board meeting, under the chairmanship of the Honorable Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., Secretary of State of the United States, was opened by the following remarks of His Excellency Carlos Martins, Ambassador of Brazil and Vice Chairman of the Board:

"For the Pan American Union this meeting is particularly tragic, since it is called to take official cognizance of the death of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

"The world has suffered an irreparable loss, but the passing of this great leader is especially tragic for us in the Americas. Under his influence the Pan American Union has had its most brilliant and most constructive days. We are all aware what an inestimable heritage was bestowed on the Union of American Republics by the declaration of the Good Neighbor Policy, of which Roosevelt was the originator and guiding spirit. Humanity has received from him the su-

preme sacrifice; he has laid down his own life in the holocaust to approaching Victory and to the realization of his great dream of the universal peace that the United Nations, inspired by his magnificent example, will build at San Francisco.

"A citizen of the Americas, Franklin Delano Roosevelt leaves in this suffering world a chasm that we in the Americas are called upon to fill, with God's help, in order to create a world of justice, liberty, and harmony—his highest ideal."

The Ambassador then offered for the Board's consideration the following resolution, which was unanimously approved:

WHEREAS:

Franklin Delano Roosevelt, through his notable contributions to the cause of inter-American understanding, was considered a citizen not only of the United States but of all the Americas;

His death is an irreparable loss to all the nations of the Continent; and

The Good Neighbor Policy, enunciated by President Roosevelt in his first inaugural address and effectively practiced throughout the twelve years of his administration, has become a basic principle of inter-American relations,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

1. To record the profound grief of the members of the Board at the death of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, humanitarian, statesman, internationalist.

2. To pay tribute to his memorable contributions to the cause of inter-American understanding, which will ever remain a monument to his genius and a beacon to future generations.

3. To request the Director General to transmit a copy of this resolution to the Government of the United States and to the family of President Roosevelt.

Mr. Stettinius, in a voice tinged with the emotion which all present were feeling, responded in these words:

"The people of the United States will be grateful for this expression of tribute to Franklin Delano Roosevelt by the Representatives of the American Republics here assembled. They will be strengthened by this assurance that the people of all our neighbor republics share so intimately in their sorrow and their sense of loss.

"I now have the honor to read to you a message from President Truman.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY:

Will you please convey to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union my deep appreciation of the tribute being rendered to Franklin D. Roosevelt at the special session of the Board called in his memory and my regret that I cannot myself be present.

President Roosevelt had prepared a message to the Pan American Union on the occasion of Pan American Day. Since it was his intention that it be read on this day, I send it to you. To the purposes and beliefs which he stated in this message and to the Good Neighbor policy of which he was the author, I wholeheartedly subscribe.

I am certain that the bond of a cherished memory will give new strength to the friendship of the Americas.

Very sincerely yours,

HARRY S. TRUMAN

President of the United States

"This is the message which was prepared by President Roosevelt:

Once more the American Republics have demonstrated both their unity of purpose and their capacity for effective cooperation to maintain the se-

curity of this Hemisphere against aggression and to advance the welfare of the American peoples.

The agreements reached at the Inter-American Conference in Mexico City and the solid support given to these Agreements by all 21 of the American Republics have a significance, however, that extends far beyond this Hemisphere. They provide renewed assurance that the American Nations intend to live not only as good neighbors among themselves, but as good neighbors in a world of neighbors.

The governments and peoples of the Western Hemisphere share the understanding that maintenance of lasting peace in the Americas is bound up with maintenance of lasting peace throughout the world. To the long and difficult tasks of organizing the world for such a peace they will bring a community of principle and a rich store of common experience which will contribute greatly toward the accomplishment of this wider purpose.

"That concludes the message which President Roosevelt had prepared.

"Now the great man who was the author of the Good Neighbor policy has passed away. But the policy and the program to which he gave so much live on. They are now part of America. We shall continue to walk together as neighbors on that road to security and peace which the vision and steadfast purpose of Franklin Delano Roosevelt helped us so much to find and to follow."

Thus there passed into the records of history President Roosevelt's final message to the American Republics, prepared on the very eve of his death. Three times during his twelve years of office, he had appeared before the Governing Board of the Pan

American Union to deliver his annual Pan American Day greeting in person—in 1933, 1937, and 1940. This year the richly timbred voice that had become so familiar to all his fellow Americans was still, but the ideals he championed, the peace and understanding among the American nations for which he so zealously labored, are, as Mr. Stettinius aptly stated, "now a part of America."

The Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, supplemented the Governing Board's tribute with the following statement:

"The Pan American Union joins in the universal and profound sense of loss at the death of Franklin Delano Roosevelt. To the Americas he represented the ideal, so happily described in his own words, of the Good Neighbor. His wide personal acquaintance with leaders in other nations of this hemisphere gave him a sound basis for his continental policies, and his visits to a number of these countries made his sincere, sympathetic interest in Latin America patent to men of every walk in life.

"The outpouring of national grief in all the countries, members of the Pan American Union, attests to the high regard and the deep affection in which he was held. Acclaimed as the great leader in the struggle for human liberty and democracy, he was also considered by the people throughout the Americas as their friend. His ideals will continue to guide and inspire our nations as they work out their common destiny in the days that lie ahead."

The scope of Franklin Delano Roosevelt's interest, his hopes, his efforts, his influence, and his guidance was so far-reaching that any attempt to capture it all in a few short pages of text must necessarily fall far short of the mark. Beloved and trusted throughout the world, he still speaks for himself, even in death. The tribute of the BULLETIN



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING AT THE OPENING SESSION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE FOR THE MAINTENANCE OF PEACE.

of the Pan American Union to the memory of this great American will be confined to his place in inter-American affairs—a field in which he undeniably towered above all his predecessors in the Presidency.

To the American Republics Franklin Delano Roosevelt's name will forever be synonymous with the Good Neighbor Policy. From the moment he took over the reins of government, he demonstrated his profound interest in strengthening inter-American relations. In his first inaugural address on March 4, 1933, he enunciated his policy, in simple language, easily understood and eagerly welcomed throughout Latin America; a policy which he reiterated and applied concretely to the Americas when, but little more than a month later, on April 12,

1933, he came to the Pan American Union and there addressed the Governing Board:

This celebration commemorates a movement based upon the policy of fraternal cooperation. In my inaugural address I stated that I would "dedicate this Nation to the policy of the good neighbor—the neighbor who resolutely respects himself, and, because he does so, respects the rights of others—the neighbor who respects his obligations and respects the sanctity of his agreements in and with a world of neighbors." Never before has the significance of the words "good neighbor" been so manifest in international relations. Never have the need and benefit of neighborly cooperation in every form of human activity been so evident as they are today.

Friendship among nations, as among individuals, calls for constructive efforts to muster the forces of humanity in order that an atmosphere of close understanding and cooperation may be cultivated. It involves mutual obligations and responsibilities,

for it is only by sympathetic respect for the rights of others and a scrupulous fulfillment of the corresponding obligations by each member of the community that a true fraternity can be maintained.

The essential qualities of a true Pan Americanism must be the same as those which constitute a good neighbor, namely, mutual understanding, and through such understanding, a sympathetic appreciation of the other's point of view. It is only in this manner that we can hope to build up a system of which confidence, friendship, and good will are the cornerstones. . . .

Another general principle applicable to all the American countries was made clear late in 1933. In December of that year the Seventh International Conference of American States assembled in Montevideo, and the United States, with the other Republics members of the Pan American Union, signed a Convention on the Rights and Duties of States which expressly declared that "No State has the right to intervene in the internal or external affairs of another." Just after the close of that Conference President Roosevelt, speaking before the Woodrow Wilson Foundation on December 28, 1933, emphatically stated, "The definite policy of the United States from now on is one opposed to armed intervention."

A few months later this new policy of the United States bore fruit in the signing on May 29, 1934, of a new Treaty of Relations with Cuba, superseding the 1903 Treaty and abrogating the Platt Amendment. Thus the contractual right of the United States to intervene in Cuba and to participate in the determination of certain Cuban domestic policies, granted by the earlier treaty, was abolished.

In March 1936 a notable step forward in relations between the United States and another of its Latin American neighbors was made. A new general treaty and several conventions were signed by the Governments of the United States and Panama; the treaty repealed certain provisions of the Convention of November 18, 1903, consid-

ered by Panama as derogatory to its sovereignty, and modernized the Convention in other respects.

In January 1936, steering straight along his course of fostering inter-American cooperation and understanding, the President proposed to the chiefs of state of the other American nations the convocation of an extraordinary inter-American conference for determining "how the maintenance of peace among the American Republics may best be safeguarded." His suggestion was unanimously approved by the presidents of the other twenty republics of the hemisphere; steps were immediately taken toward formulating a program; and finally on December 1, 1936, following an invitation extended by the Government of Argentina, the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace met at Buenos Aires. In response to an invitation of the Argentine Government, President Roosevelt decided to journey to Buenos Aires to address the representatives of the American Republics at the inaugural session of the Conference.

En route he stopped for visits in Brazil and Uruguay. In an address delivered before a special joint session of the Brazilian Congress and Supreme Court, he expressed again his deep feeling on the subject of interdependence among nations. "No nation can live entirely to itself," he said. "Each one of us has learned the glories of independence. Let each one of us learn the glories of interdependence. Economically, we supply each other's needs; intellectually, we maintain a constant, a growing exchange of culture, of science, and of thought; spiritually, the life of each can well enrich the life of all. We are showing in international relations what we have long known in private relations—that good neighbors make a good community."

"Members of the American family of nations; my friends," President Roosevelt be-

gan his address to the opening session of the Buenos Aires Conference. With those same two commonplace words, "my friends," he began scores of addresses to his fellow-countrymen during his twelve years of office. Infused with the warmth of his personality, those two words carried over the air and through the printed page into the hearts of the people, who came to feel that he was just that—their friend. Those words inspired regard, confidence, love, and a deeply personal feeling—at first among his own people, and then as time went by and his guidance and influence in the international field became ever wider, among the peoples of all nations—so that at the end, millions the world over wept, not merely at the irreparable loss of a wise leader, but also at the loss of a good friend.

In his address at Buenos Aires, three years before World War II broke out in Europe, Franklin Delano Roosevelt warned of the dangers to the Americas of an armed conflict elsewhere in the world and voiced his hope that the Americas, by the example of their united action for the peaceful settlement of difficulties and the perfection of their peace machinery, might be of some help in staving off impending world disaster. He said in part:

. . . The madness of a great war in other parts of the world would affect us and threaten our good in a hundred ways. And the economic collapse of any nation or nations must of necessity harm our own prosperity. . . .

First, it is our duty by every honorable means to prevent any future war among ourselves. This can best be done through the strengthening of the processes of constitutional democratic government—to make these processes conform to the modern need for unity and efficiency and, at the same time, preserve the individual liberties of our citizens. By so doing, the people of our nations, unlike the people of many nations who live under other forms of government, can and will insist on their intention to live in peace. Thus will democratic government be justified throughout the world.

In the determination to live at peace among ourselves we in the Americas make it at the same time clear that we stand shoulder to shoulder in our final determinations that others who, driven by war madness or land hunger, might seek to commit acts of aggression against us, will find a hemisphere wholly prepared to consult together for our mutual safety and our mutual good. . . .

Secondly, and in addition to the perfecting of the mechanism of peace, we can strive even more strongly than in the past to prevent the creation of those conditions which give rise to war. Lack of social or political justice within the borders of any nation is always cause for concern. . . .

If, then, by making war in our midst impossible, and if within ourselves and among ourselves we can give greater freedom and fulfillment to the individual lives of our citizens, the democratic form of representative government will have justified the high hopes of the liberating fathers. Democracy is still the hope of the world. If we in our generation can continue its successful applications in the Americas, it will spread and supersede other methods by which men are governed and which seem to most of us to run counter to our ideals of human liberty and human progress.

Three centuries of history sowed the seeds which grew into our nations; the fourth century saw those nations become equal and free and brought to us a common system of constitutional government; the fifth century is giving to us a common meeting ground of mutual help and understanding. Our hemisphere has at last come of age. We are here assembled to show it united to the world. We took from our ancestors a great dream. We here offer it back as a great unified reality. . . .

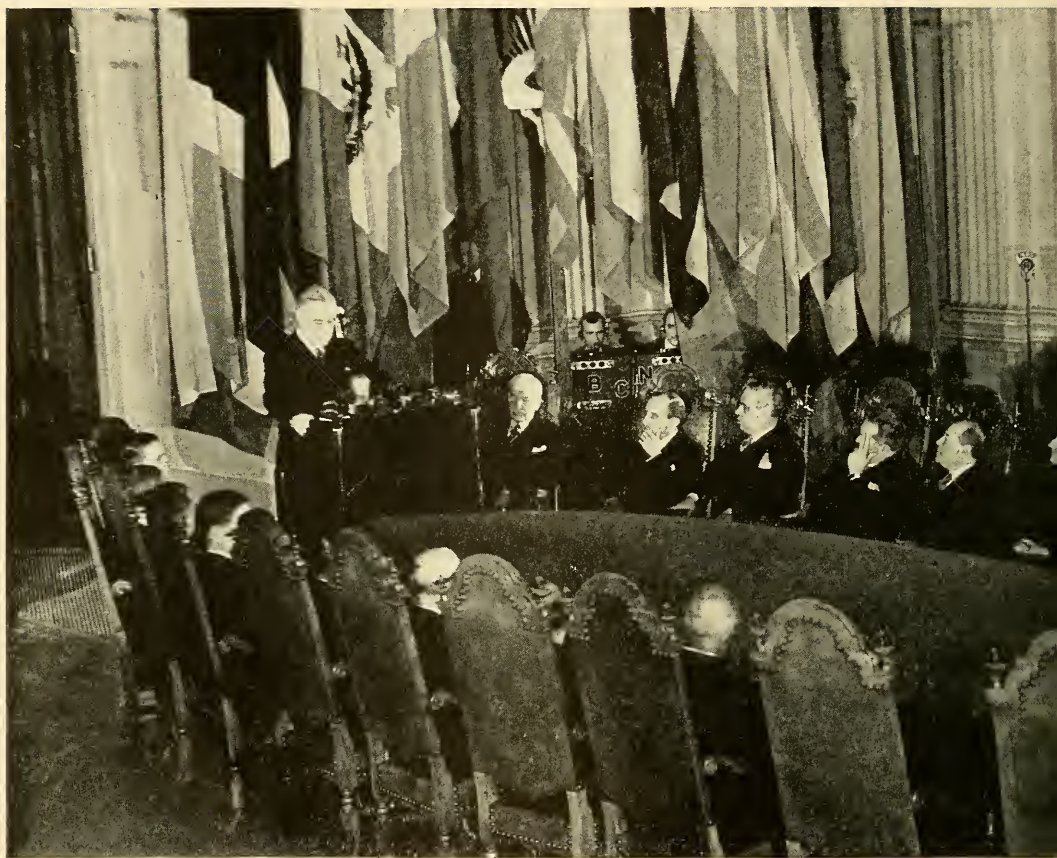
The several instruments concluded at that Conference fulfilled President Roosevelt's high hopes and justified his faith in the Western Hemisphere. Among those that gave new vigor and force to the peace mechanism and the solidarity of the Americas were the Convention for the Maintenance, Preservation, and Reestablishment of Peace, which introduced into the inter-American system the principle of consultation—a principle put to use through the three Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs held since the beginning of the war in Europe in 1939; the Treaties on the Prevention of Contro-

versies and on Good Offices, which supplemented existing peace machinery; the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations; and the Declaration of Principles of Inter-American Solidarity and Cooperation, in which the American nations proclaimed anew their absolute juridical liberty, respect for their respective sovereignties, and the existence of a common democracy; declared that every act susceptible of disturbing the peace of America affects each and every one of them, and justified the initiation of the procedure of consultation; and further set forth certain accepted principles such as the proscription of war, the condemnation of intervention in the domestic or foreign affairs of another state, and the peaceful settlement of disputes.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt labored not only for peace; he will be remembered to an equally imperishable degree as the champion of the common man, the poor, the "ill-housed, ill-clad, ill-nourished"—not only of his own country but of the world. That concern of his, as applied to all America, was expressed in his Buenos Aires address—a truly remarkable document because it embodied so many of the high principles and ideals for which he labored without ceasing to the last day of his life—when he spoke of striving to achieve for the Americas, through democratic processes, the "highest possible standard of living conditions for all our people"; of "a wider distribution of culture, of education, of thought, and of free expression"; and of "a greater security of life for our citizens and a more equal opportunity for them to prosper." These aims and ideals were never absent from his thought or from his effort; they found expression later—before, and on behalf of, the whole world—in the Four Freedoms, concepts which formed the basis of the aims of the Atlantic Charter drafted by him and Prime Minister Churchill in August 1941.

President Roosevelt's statement of his Good Neighbor Policy was no idle one. He believed in implementing the policy by means of positive action. He believed—and so stated both in his 1933 Pan American Day message and in his Buenos Aires address—that the welfare and prosperity of the American nations depend in large part on the benefits derived from commerce among themselves and with other nations, and he strongly advocated a more liberal trade policy. The Trade Agreements Act of 1934, as amended and extended by later acts of the United States Congress, was a concrete step of the Roosevelt Administration for the establishment of such a policy. Through the efforts of Cordell Hull, Mr. Roosevelt's Secretary of State for nearly twelve years, reciprocal trade agreements were negotiated with fifteen Latin American countries. The present law expires in June 1945, and on March 26, 1945, the President sent a message to Congress recommending its renewal "so that the great work which Secretary Hull began may be continued." "The purpose of the whole effort," he said, "is to eliminate economic warfare, to make practical international cooperation effective on as many fronts as possible, and so to lay the economic basis for the secure and peaceful world we all desire."

The interdependence of the Americas assumed even greater importance with the outbreak of the war in Europe, and still more with Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor. Faithful to their agreements to consider an act of aggression against one American Republic as an act of aggression against all, the nations of America supported the cause of the United States and fell into step with their neighbor in the prosecution of the war. Under the leadership of President Roosevelt, the United States adopted all possible measures through new or existing agencies to alleviate the resultant economic dislocations



among the other American Republics. Loans of the Export-Import Bank of Washington were extended in increasing amounts to Latin American nations for public works and agricultural, mining, and industrial development; bilateral agreements were negotiated with several Latin American countries to stabilize the exchange rate between the United States dollar and the respective foreign currencies; the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, acting through its various subsidiary agencies, entered into agreements with many Latin American Republics for the purchase of their strategic and critical raw materials; the Commodity Credit Corporation arranged to purchase surpluses of products such as sugar, cotton, vegetable oils, and

others; and all the benefits of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, were made applicable to various Latin American nations through agreements between the United States and the respective governments.

The nations of Latin America, on their part, wholeheartedly responded to the need for hemispheric collaboration in the prosecution of the war. They offered all their facilities for the development and exportation of their commodities; some of them made air and naval bases available to the United States at strategic points essential to general continental security; they patrolled the sea and air; and Brazil and Mexico also joined the United States in sending armed forces to foreign battlefronts.



THE FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

President Roosevelt addresses the Governing Board on April 14, 1940.

nations. Also in the same year, at the suggestion of President Roosevelt, the Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics (now called the Interdepartmental Committee on Cultural and Scientific Cooperation) was established to coordinate the activities of departments and agencies of the United States Government, under the leadership of the State Department, in undertaking cooperative projects in the Western Hemisphere.

The principle of cooperative action was particularly stressed in the general policies of the Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics in formulating its programs. These were designed to include projects in the economic, social, scientific, and intellectual fields that would result in a well-rounded plan of cooperative action reaching people in the American Republics in all walks of life. United States experts—agricultural and livestock, economic, railway, fisheries, geological, education, library, tariff, coal, chemical, rubber, and others—were loaned to other American governments on request to aid them in their own work in such fields; fellowships for study in government and practically every technical line were offered to citizens of the other Republics; funds were allocated for the exchange of distinguished citizens, professors, and students, for assistance in the cooperative maintenance of United States cultural institutes, for aid to United States schools and libraries in Latin America, and for the exchange of publications and translations.

In August 1940 a body subordinate to

In the development of his Good Neighbor Policy, however, President Roosevelt thought and acted not only in terms of hemispheric peace and of mutual economic benefits. During his entire administration, the promotion of cultural understanding and cooperation between the United States and Latin America was also unceasingly carried forward. Early efforts along those lines were given official status by the creation in the Department of State in 1938 of the Division of Cultural Relations (later renamed the Division of Cultural Cooperation), for the purpose of making and carrying into effect a comprehensive plan of activity in the United States for strengthening intellectual and cultural relations with other



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT WITH PRESIDENT ÁVILA CAMACHO AT MONTERREY

From this meeting grew a fruitful plan for economic cooperation between Mexico and the United States.

the Council of National Defense was established, known as the Office for Coordination of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American Republics. By an Executive Order of July 30, 1941, this body became the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and is at present known as the Office of Inter-American Affairs. Under its auspices, and in cooperation with the State Department, programs were formulated and executed by which governmental and private facilities in such fields as the arts and sciences, public health, education and travel, radio, press, and motion pictures were put to effective use in further-

ing the national defense and strengthening the cultural bonds between the Americas.

All these activities were regarded by President Roosevelt and officials of his Administration as one of the effectual means of promoting international understanding and of achieving international—and hence, national—security.

Still another measure, adopted during President Roosevelt's third term, which is worthy of remark was the raising to embassy rank of the United States diplomatic representations in all American Republics where such rank was not already in effect. This action on the part of the United States was

followed by a similar elevation in rank of the respective Latin American diplomatic missions before the Government of the United States.

President Roosevelt was a firm believer in the value of personal contact as a means of settling problems and furthering international understanding and good will. His many personal contacts with the chiefs of state, ministers of foreign affairs, and other high ranking government officials of the American Republics bear witness to that belief. Many of these meetings occurred in Washington, whither the visitors came in response to cordial invitations extended by the President himself; others took place in the other Republics. In 1934, for instance, while on his way to Hawaii, President Roosevelt visited the capital of Haiti, the city of Cartagena, Colombia, and the capital of the Republic of Panama. In 1936, as mentioned above, while en route to the Buenos Aires Conference, he visited both Brazil and Uruguay and took advantage of the opportunity for an exchange of views and the discussion of mutual problems with the presidents of those two nations. In January 1943, on his return from Casablanca, he stopped in Natal, Brazil, to confer again with President Vargas. In April 1943 in the city of Monterrey, Mexico, he and President Ávila Camacho held a conference, following which the President of Mexico accompanied Mr. Roosevelt northward for a brief visit to the naval air base at Corpus Christi, Texas. During this historic meeting, the two Presidents together mapped out a new and comprehensive program for economic cooperation between their two countries. In October 1943 President Lescot of Haiti came to Washington for discussions with President Roosevelt on a number of questions relating to the joint war effort of the two countries. As a result agreements between the two countries were reached on

such matters as the *Cryptostegia* rubber development in Haiti; Haitian repayments of Export-Import Bank loans for public works; a cooperative educational project; the loan of United States experts in agriculture, education, and taxation; and the establishment of a joint Haitian-United States Industrial Mission to study and plan the development of certain small industries in Haiti.

The last great inter-American meeting to take place during President Roosevelt's tenure of office was the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace that assembled in Mexico City on February 21, 1945. He sent a message of greeting to the delegates, in which he said: "Since the days of their independence the American Republics have tirelessly explored every pathway to human freedom, justice, and international well being, and today the common men of all peace-loving nations look to them and you for light on the arduous road to world peace, security, and a higher level of economic life. By their moral purpose, their intelligent efforts, and their friendly spirit they will make common cause among themselves and with other nations to attain the noblest objective of human aspiration." The Act of Chapultepec, the Declaration of Mexico, the strengthening of the Inter-American System, and the Economic Charter gave ample fulfillment to Mr. Roosevelt's hopes and expectations for that inter-American assembly.

Death came to this great and courageous leader and protagonist of democracy at the "Little White House," Warm Springs, Georgia, on April 12, 1945, just eighty-three days after he had for the fourth time taken the oath of office as President of the United States. Simple funeral ceremonies were held at the White House in Washington on April 14, 1945, and the next day he was laid to rest in the quiet garden of

his country home, Hyde Park. Mingled with the soil of his native acres there lies above his resting place earth from the twenty other American Republics, taken from that contributed at the planting of the Pan American Tree in Habana, Cuba. This tribute was sponsored by the diplomatic representatives of the Americas at Habana. From the Province of Antioquia, Colombia, came another tribute—fifty dozen orchids, flown northward to Hyde Park as a token of the respect of the people of that province for the great man who was the Good Neighbor

and good friend of all the citizens of the Americas.

Beyond doubt, the memorial which Franklin Delano Roosevelt himself would prefer above all others, will be the lasting world peace and security for which he worked and died. "We seek peace—enduring peace," he said in his last message to the American people, which he had intended to broadcast to Jefferson Day dinners throughout the nation the night of April 14, 1945. "More than an end to war, we want an end to the beginnings of all wars."



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S FUNERAL PROCESSION

Antonio Maceo, a Hero of Cuban Independence

1845—June 14—1945

EMETERIO S. SANTOVENIA

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I

ANTONIO MACEO Y GRAJALES was born free in a slaveholding country; he first saw the light of day at Santiago, Cuba, June 14, 1845. Naturally his liberty was limited at a time when the forced servitude of one part of the Cuban population was not the only negation of the natural and political rights of the inhabitants of this island. Social injustice divided the inhabitants into two great groups, free men and slaves, while the colonial government maintained with increasing irritation to the people the difference between Spaniards and Cubans.

Antonio Maceo's parents took pains to educate him as far as their means and environment permitted. An education, as Mariana and Marcos Maceo understood it, included not only schooling but also the good manners and habits taught by their example, and much else. Antonio learned from his elders that land of one's own was an excellent place to work, for the farm at Majaguabo, in San Luis de la Enramada, was theirs. It was fertile and large enough so that they could raise cattle and plant tobacco and fruit.

Almost everything in Maceo's surroundings helped to give him a happy boyhood and youth, full of promise. He acquired his parents' traits of character: a sense of duty, a thoroughgoing conception of human dignity, integrity, self-control, great tact in

his relations with others, and a firm determination to meet such relations bravely. As for his private life, he wanted to live it fully. As soon as he felt that he could earn his livelihood, he decided to take a wife, and when he was not quite twenty-one he married María Magdalena Cabrales. He found in her an excellent helpmeet, nobly resolved to share with him the few joys and many trials to be expected in this world.

II

Maceo's happy young manhood, the result of his parents' efforts and good qualities, contrasted with the sad state of the country. The years that had passed since his birth had aggravated the social injustice that divided the inhabitants of Cuba into free men and slaves and heightened the exasperating distinctions between Spaniards and Cubans. The politico-social regime of the island was based on the pernicious principle of giving privileges to Spanish residents, free men of course, to the prejudice and at the cost of the rest of the population. The existence of negro slavery seemed even worse after its abolition under Abraham Lincoln in the neighboring United States during one of the most bloody wars in history.

Antonio Maceo, his parents, and his brothers and sisters were not content with the personal liberty that they enjoyed. They were among the inhabitants of Cuba whose

self-respect was insulted every moment of every day by the slavery of the negroes and the abuses that were the very heart of the colonial regime. They thought that fundamentally a man ceased even to appear free if he tolerated a bad government and did not work to improve or overthrow it. On October 10, 1868 Carlos Manuel de Céspedes started a revolt against the power of Spain in Cuba. A few days later Antonio Maceo joined the Liberating Army, and all his family placed itself at the army's service.

Maceo began his military career under the inflexible rule that every promotion must be preceded by an engagement in which his life had been endangered. One day he fought bravely: then he could and did become a lieutenant. Another day he distinguished himself in several combats: then he was a captain. Three months after joining the army he showed his military ability in a very difficult situation: thus he won his rise to major. In this period he stood out especially for his warlike impetuosity, his observance of discipline, and his skill in leading troops: the revolutionary leaders promoted him to lieutenant colonel.

New engagements in 1871 added luster to his record: they were the grounds for making him a colonel in the Liberating Army. Fighting with Máximo Gómez and Calixto García, he applied all his military talents. The army moved over a wide territory. He planned; he fought; he was victorious. From this campaign came his promotion to brigadier general. The rule never varied. Each promotion was heralded and determined by heroic deeds.

The revolutionists sought to repair the breaks in their ranks arising from internal discord. It was decided to attack Manzanillo and Maceo entered the square under enemy fire. An invasion of Las Villas was planned and he was chosen to lead it. At Melones,

Naranjo, and Las Guásimas famous actions took place and Maceo's bravery and skill were notable.

But these great days for the patriots were not all the story. Mistakes and misfortunes came between them. There were people from one section who were opposed to the advance of forces coming from another; Maceo had to retreat with the troops at his command. Discipline grew more and more lax. A seditious movement broke out at Lagunas de Varona. Maceo, the very pattern of a disciplined Cuban, grieved to see a falling away from the virtues essential to the cause to which he was devoted body and soul.

While Maceo was overrunning wide stretches of the eastern part of the country and attacking Sagua de Tánamo, making his presence felt at Baracoa, and preparing other effective surprises in the hope of new victories for the Liberating Army, a terrible internal blow against it was being plotted. Finally this conspiracy for disintegration came to a head at Santa Rita. The leader spoke about political renovation and tried to have Maceo second him. An upright man, Maceo was deeply angered by what he considered an invitation to disobedience and insubordination. He believed that while the government of the republic organized on the battlefields for Free Cuba might have defects, as indeed it did, the men under arms to create and defend it had no legal or moral right to place their personal power above collective interests.

To fight, to fight unceasingly, was his business, which obligated him also to keep a strict watch over the ethical principles of the Republic. Many battles brought him daily into danger. Often wounded, he was now wounded more seriously than ever. This was the preface to his promotion to major general of the Liberating Army, a post in which he did not falter. At Juan Mulato



Courtesy of Emeterio S. Santovenia

ANTONIO MACEO

Reproduced from the oil painting by Eugenio G. Olivera in the Cuban Ministry of Defense.

and San Ulpiano he opposed with all the force he could muster the efforts at pacification made by Arsenio Martínez de Campos, the Spanish general. But weariness overpowered most of the men in the Cuban ranks. At El Zanjón in Camagüey there was signed on February 10, 1878 a pact to terminate the war begun in Cuba almost ten years before.

III

Maceo did not accept this pact. His attitude upset those who longed for the re-establishment of peace and on March 15, 1878, he had a conference at Baraguá with Martínez de Campos. The two leaders had dissimilar viewpoints. The Spaniard believed that everything could be arranged by a few words designed to inspire confidence and clarify some ideas. The Cuban refused to accept the new position that the Spanish spokesman attributed to the mother country. The revolutionists stressed one point of the highest importance: the abolition of slavery. Was Madrid ready to grant this definitely? If even this could be obtained after so long and so cruel a struggle! Martínez de Campos did not want to promise more on this point than the little that Maceo had seen in the pact signed at El Zanjón, or perhaps he could not, to his sorrow. The chasm between the Spaniard and the Cuban could not be bridged.

All hopes for the Republic seemed to be destroyed at El Zanjón. Camagüey had seen it born and now saw it die. Maceo wanted to revive it; his fame was the only moral force which might perform the miracle of maintaining organized resistance. Those who did not wish to abide by the pact met and drew up a brief constitution, electing high civil and military officials. They gave to Maceo the command of the province of Oriente, where for two months he struggled

to revive the war. The Spaniards did not want to fight—the Cubans were exhausted. It was impossible to bring from outside the encouragement and the munitions that could not be found at home. The provisional government, as the new political organization of the revolutionists was called, decided that Maceo should go abroad for help, and accordingly he left Santiago May 10, 1878 for Kingston. He had never before been outside his country. His mission consisted of awakening the enthusiasm and self-denial of Cuban émigrés.

Still under an adverse star, he went on to New York. A new country did not give him new impressions; everywhere he met discouragement. The Cubans who had left their country were impotent and a quick reaction could not be expected of them. This Maceo saw with his own eyes. In Cuba the provisional government decided on May 25, 1878 to dissolve, and peace, at least material peace, appeared to reign.

The end of the war in Cuba found Maceo traveling in foreign parts. He left New York for Kingston and from a distance kept watch of the state of public opinion and the chances for revolution in Cuba.

In his maturity he had achieved an admirable personality. Always careful and fastidious in his dress, he was modest in his demeanor and in his habits. He was completely self-controlled. He spoke in a measured manner, partly by temperament and partly in order to conceal his congenital stuttering. He did not use foul language. He never showed signs of vexation. He did not drink or smoke. He tried to be pleasant to other people and showed his affection for his friends. He liked to associate with cultured persons, and was an excellent observer. He shunned references to his prowess in war. He respected the reputation of others as much as his own, and was never heard gossiping about other people. He did not

lend himself to intrigue. He was a true gentleman in mind, heart, and bearing.

His anxiety for the cause impelled him to go up and down among those who had fled from Cuba, making contacts with outstanding men. Honduras received him cordially and utilized his services. Key West, New York, Mexico, Jamaica, Panama, and Peru were other places visited in his travels.

Early in 1890 he managed to return to Habana, where he was acclaimed and fêted. He could not resist the temptation to conspiracy. After studying the topography of the western part of the island, he left for the province of Oriente, where he extended and intensified preparations for war. The colonial authorities, however, frustrated his plans for an immediate uprising and governmental foresight expelled him from the country.

From Costa Rica he continued to keep careful watch of unfolding events in Cuba and in the other American countries that had relations with his own or that might become more closely related. From there he sent his vote in favor of making Máximo Gómez General in Chief of the Liberating Army when Cuba should renew its fight for independence. From there he carried on a cordial and fruitful correspondence with José Martí, who was performing the prodigious feat of uniting all factions in favor of independence, those in Cuba as well as those among the émigrés. From there he strengthened his friendship with other great men of America who were also devoting themselves to collective struggles for liberation and redemption.

v

Maceo left Costa Rica for Cuba, which was again on a war footing, although the revolutionary uprising planned by Martí was in danger of failure. He landed at Duaba, in Baracoa, on April 1, 1895; Gómez and

Martí disembarked at another place on the eastern shore of the island, and the three great men met and talked. To Martí, who soon afterwards fell at Dos Ríos, it was absolutely essential to give organized form to the republic. Maceo supported this ideal of the Apostle of Liberty, but he knew that his place was on the firing line. Doing the impossible, he made an unexpected move in the province of Santiago de Cuba, and amazed his enemies by his attack and defense. His presence and action in Cuba were decisive for the cause of independence.

The Assembly of Representatives of the Revolution, which met at Jimaguayú in September 1895, drew up a constitution, which provided for the post of Lieutenant General of the Liberating Army. Maceo was chosen to fill it as a reward for his exceptional qualities. The choice recognized that his military ability and his leadership were such that at any moment he could assume command of the whole army.

A fundamental task was to invade Cuban territory to its westernmost limits. Superior forces obliged Maceo to begin his great undertaking at Baraguá, at the same place where he had tried to keep the revolution going in 1878. The invading troops consisted of about 1400 men when they left the province of Oriente. Their leader felt a deep joy because he was serving his country in an extremely dangerous enterprise.

"The Invasion," as it is known to Cubans, seemed to be the work of titans. Gómez and Maceo carried it forward with amazing swiftness. The General in Chief put the Lieutenant General at the head of the invading column. Passing from province to province, through places worthy of remembrance—Lázaro López, La Reforma, Iguará, Mal Tiempo, Coliseo, Calimete, Hoyo Colorado—the Invasion reached Habana, where Maceo was given the responsibility of advancing it to Pinar del Río. Two weeks

were enough to cover the long road to Mantua. On January 23, 1896, after three months, the bold plan had been completed, thanks to the double strategy of fighting when it was unavoidable and of avoiding loss of blood and munitions as often as possible. This was a precaution imposed by the notorious inequality between the Spanish forces and equipment and the improvised and scanty resources of the Liberators.

At Mantua the Lieutenant General left official testimony of the completion of the Invasion and joined forces with the General in Chief. After their impressive meeting in the province of Habana, Gómez and Maceo went together to Matanzas. At El Galeón they separated, going in opposite directions. Maceo turned again to Pinar del Río.

VI

The Pinar del Río campaign fully revealed Maceo's ability. Everyone knew and admired the traits he had shown in the many years that he had served his country: his ability to obey and to command; his integrity of character; his love for the political principles of the revolution; his devotion to the finest men; his true brotherhood; his lofty standards in public affairs; his heroism, attested by the scars of more than twenty wounds. This was his fruitful and glorious past. But there was something unusual in what he was shaping with ideas and deeds in Pinar del Río, where he gallantly and ably carried the weight of leadership and of great responsibilities in a difficult post.

Instead of considering Maceo's engagements in Pinar del Río singly, one should think of the whole long campaign in this rugged province. There were only five hundred men against many thousands; sometimes only six or a dozen men against several hundred, the former badly supplied and the latter excellently equipped. The paths of the Órganos mountains, the highways of

Vuelta Abajo, and the pine groves of Montezuelo and Caja del Negro were the theater of the battle between soldiers and ideas, a battle in which Spain concentrated its forces to surround and kill the intrepid General and his devoted followers. The campaign of Pinar del Río meant fighting every day, fighting on most unequal terms, fighting harder than in any other part of Cuba.

Although the historical and political implications of the Invasion were great and highly honored the Lieutenant General, the campaign of Pinar del Río was not less important. This too was the work of his genius, which there had full scope. When he was getting ready to leave western Cuba, called to the other end of the island by the necessity of dispelling a threat to the patriot cause, his upright and generous heart could feel the great joy of having won as much glory for his country as for himself in those months in which he never ceased fighting, fighting harder than ever with both his heroic arm and his keen mind.

VII

His decision to leave the territory of Pinar del Río was imposed by distant events and his own purposes. The success of the revolution demanded that he take the dangerous route across the fortified line between Mariel and Majana.

By land it was difficult to pass this line. By sea it was far from easy on the night when he attempted it; he had to choose this way at the last moment. The hero and those who shared the privilege of following him through thick and thin crossed the waters of Mariel bay in a fragile little boat on the night of December 4, 1896, almost brushing the Spanish sentries. On the other shore they advanced like shadows, their hearts beating hard. How many thoughts thronged through their minds! And the head of their leader was bowed under the

weight of anxiety or of happiness, or of both at once. Behind was the Spanish line, danger, the glory of a great campaign, and the sweetness of a platonic love.

Before the indomitable leader were hopes—hopes for great things; and realities—the petty trials that lay in wait for him; the affection of some men and the dislike of others. He was ill of a fever but he had to go on. People familiar with the region took him by safe paths to San Pedro in the province of Habana.

The fighter revived at the call of his country's needs that he longed to satisfy. He made plans and issued orders. He was preparing to reassume the duties of a great leader of the war, but rested briefly before translating thought into action. It was December 7, 1896. With the sudden appearance of enemy troops there was the prospect

of one of the innumerable actions in which he had measured his strength against theirs. This was what he thought, but destiny decreed otherwise. Guns were raised and both sides fired. There were shouts, the fighting grew more bitter, and Antonio Maceo, pierced by a bullet, fell dead on Cuban earth.

Although this was a severe misfortune for the country, what happened at San Pedro was only one more episode in the life of the Lieutenant General. The power of his spirit did not die; it continued working for the victory of the ideals that had long inspired him. They were great ideals, and great was his glory as their guardian and advocate. Maceo's words still resound, and they will resound for many years, for they speak of the exaltation of fraternity, dignity, equality, liberty, and democracy.



The United States Department of State and Foreign Labor Affairs

CLEON O. SWAYZEE

Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs, United States Department of State

It may fairly be said that improvement in international relations can be measured in large part by the degree to which nations have enlarged their knowledge and understanding of one another. In earlier days international relations were guided principally by contacts between the heads of state alone, by their knowledge of and reaction to one another. Each succeeding generation, however, has improved its international relations, in no small part at least, by increasing its knowledge and understanding of the people, the economic and social systems, the politics and governments of other nations. This has resulted in part from technological advances which have greatly reduced distances and have made more frequent and numerous international contacts inevitable. But it has resulted as much from the deliberate policy of nations which have recognized that uncertainties and conflicts tend to dissolve as knowledge and understanding are broadened.

It is not strange, therefore, that the United States Department of State in its desire to improve its relations with other nations should establish a separate labor division to complement the work of its economic and political divisions and install on the staff of its foreign missions attachés whose principal responsibility is to observe and report on every aspect of labor. Indeed, the Department of State has taken the position that it cannot build a realistic foreign policy with respect to any nation unless it has fairly

complete and current information on that very large part of all nations, the labor force. Wages and employment as reflected in purchasing power and standards of living, conditions of work and labor productivity, and health and housing to a very large degree determine the vitality of a people and frequently color the quality of its political institutions. In most of the modern industrial nations the labor force has become articulate through its organizations. Such organizations exercise a strong and direct influence on governmental economic and political policies and programs. Moreover, the character of the reconstituted governments in liberated areas indicates that labor will exercise an even stronger influence on many governments in the future.

The United States Department of State has for some years been cognizant of the importance of labor as a political and economic force, but it has been only within the past year that this interest has been officially recognized. In January of 1944 the Department established the Division of Labor Relations, now called the Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs, and charged it with the responsibility of collecting information on foreign labor matters and of advising the Department with respect to them. To this end the Department has not only employed a staff of labor, social welfare, and health specialists for work in Washington but also has assigned special labor reporting officers—attachés—to its

embassies and legations in fifteen countries, seven in Latin America¹ and eight in Europe. Nine others have been selected as labor reporting officers, some of whom are in training; others are soon to report for training. Additional labor reporting officers will be employed as qualified personnel can be found.

Four of the labor reporting officers are regular Foreign Service officers who have developed an interest in labor reporting and who have been called back to the Department for special training. Most of them, however, are trained specialists who have a substantial background in labor. In many cases, they have done undergraduate and graduate work in labor economics followed by employment in Federal or State labor administrative agencies. All have a sympathetic understanding of the problems with which they are concerned.

The basic labor data with which the Department is concerned relate to such matters as wages, labor costs, employment and unemployment, costs of living, industrial disputes, labor and related legislation, and the economic and political policies and programs of organized labor groups. Closely related data with which the Department is concerned include working conditions, housing, standards of living, health and social welfare programs. Each of these factors has a direct bearing upon the economic and social status and the political attitudes and activities of peoples, and through them, is reflected in the policies of their governments. Indeed, it is around such factors that wars are fought and largely upon such factors that a lasting peace depends.

The sources of labor information in foreign countries are publications both official and private; but more important are labor leaders, employers, and government officials

who work in the labor field. It is from these latter sources that the beliefs, reactions, and attitudes which reveal the underlying will and temper of a people may best be learned.

Improved understanding between the peoples of two nations results only when there is a two-way flow of information. The Department of State's labor program will not be entirely successful, therefore, if the labor reporting officers concern themselves only with observing foreign labor and reporting their observations to the Department. It is equally important that they contribute to a better understanding of the United States abroad by answering inquiries of foreign government officials, labor leaders, workers and employers about labor developments in the United States. This is facilitated by the great volume of information on United States labor matters which flows from the Department to the labor reporting officers. This includes not only the greater part of the releases and publications of the United States Department of Labor and other Federal labor agencies, but also the principal newspapers and other publications of such organizations as the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, the National Farmers Union, and the Railway Labor Executives Association. It is expected that all of these publications will be made available to interested persons in the countries where the labor reporting officers are stationed.

The Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs is only one of the several divisions of the Department of State concerned with economic affairs. Its special responsibility lies in the labor field, but its usefulness to the Department depends in large measure upon the degree to which its activities are integrated with the work of the other economic and political divisions.

In addition to the collection and analysis

¹ *Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, and Venezuela.*

of foreign labor information and the consequent formulation of policy recommendations to the Department, the Division performs other closely related functions. It analyzes existing and proposed foreign economic policies of the United States Government with a view to determining their impact upon wages, employment, and standards of living not only in this country but in other countries as well. It likewise examines the economic policies of foreign countries and the activities and policies of international economic agencies in fields where United States labor interests and welfare may be affected. The Division is also responsible for studying the international aspects of postwar full employment and for advising the Department of State on the formulation of appropriate international policies.

Since the work of the Division involves international labor problems, some of its functions relate to the International Labor Organization. The Division maintains liaison with the International Labor Organization for the Department and advises it with respect to Draft International Labor Conventions, Resolutions, and Recommendations adopted by the ILO. The Division advises on actions, of interest to the Department, which might be initiated by United States delegations to ILO meetings. Other Division functions relate to this Government's financial obligation to the ILO which is discharged through the State Department budget.

The Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs performs certain functions with respect to the importation of foreign labor into the United States for employment in war industries. There are other functions relating to such matters as the formulation of recommendations for the labor terms of the armistice and peace set-

tlement. Still other problems which frequently require the attention of the Division relate to the employment and labor policies of the Government and of private agencies in foreign countries.

Other responsibilities of the Division relate to migration, social welfare, and health. Analysis of the economic and social aspects of the large-scale population movements which will certainly follow the cessation of hostilities abroad requires substantial background preparation. The Department has long had responsibility for facilitating and coordinating the activities of agencies in the field of international health and social welfare. Accordingly, the Division performs many functions relating to UNRRA, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs. It has responsibilities relating to international cooperation for the suppression of illicit traffic in narcotic drugs. At present, the Division is also working toward the establishment of permanent international organizations in the field of health and social welfare.

To summarize: Successful international relations rest upon a broad foundation and understanding. In order to know and to understand a nation one must know and understand its people. The labor force of a nation comprises the greater part of its people. How and under what conditions they work, what wages they receive and what standard of living they enjoy, what relations they have with other economic groups, how they organize for economic and political action—these are the questions which reveal the life and soul of a people; these are the questions which forecast the role they are to play in the maintenance of a prosperous and peaceful world society. An agency responsible for its government's international relations cannot afford to overlook these basic data.



Photograph by P. C. Shaffer

THE AMAZON

Pleasure Trip on the Amazon

ELIZABETH SEARLE LAMB

THE *Westchester*, a Long Island pleasure boat converted to Amazon River traffic, dropped her heavy anchor in the Santarém harbor. Bare-footed negroes, dark-skinned caboclos, well-dressed white Portuguese-Brazilians,—all Santarém lined the white-sand shore to watch. Little rowboats scurried out to deposit cargo and passengers on board, returning with cargo and passengers destined for Santarém. The brassy two-o'clock sun glazed the scene; no breeze ruffled the blue water or disturbed a little green grass island calmly floating past.

We clambered awkwardly into Bennie's *Flor do Porto* (Flower of the Port), already heavily laden with boxes, suitcases, crudely rubberized "caucho" sacks, a live chicken or

two, and half a dozen people. With a shove and a grunt red-headed Bennie got us off the beach. Once in the water the over-burdened little boat began to take in water at an alarming rate. I clutched my purse containing passport and other important papers, wondering if I could swim in my clothes and still keep the papers dry. But Bennie, frantically bailing with a quart-size gourd, managed to keep pace with the leak while a helper rowed us into the vicinity of the *Westchester*. I say vicinity advisedly for little boats clustered about her like chicks around a mother hen. My heart in my mouth, we crawled out of Bennie's boat and lurched across other insecure little boats until we finally reached the haven of the lower deck.

Slowly we made our way across this deck,

"At Home on the Amazon" by Elizabeth Searle Lamb appeared in the May issue of the BULLETIN.

crowded as it was with third-class passengers, their boxes, bags and hammocks; big piles of cargo for Belém; and the dolls, baskets, fruit, and pastries being displayed by Santarém peddlers. The air was so heavy with the smell of hot, crowded human beings, foods, and stench of cattle rising from a lower hold that I could hardly breathe.

The first-class deck was crowded, too. Chairs lined the railing and hammocks hung from every available hook. In the big salon (there were no cabins) whole families had hung their hammocks side by side with the inevitable trunks, baskets, and miscellaneous parcels piled around them. Clothes hung on hooks in the hammock poles and along the sides of the room. The dining room still boasted its raised orchestra platform, relic of pleasure-cruise days.

We had no sooner surveyed the situation than I glanced up to see my husband shaking hands and patting the back of a plump

young ship's officer. He was the Assistant Commandante, formerly pilot of my husband's launch. With his help we met the Commandante who offered us the use of his cabin on the third deck (the few cabins the boat possessed were reserved for the officers) for dressing, and the privilege of hanging our hammocks on the top deck next to the pilot house.

"Whoo-oo-oo" went the whistle and the boat began to move slowly out into the Amazon. We felt a slight breeze and began to revive from the oppressive heat which had stifled us in Santarém.

Dinner was good. At one of the three long tables we found the seats and napkins (not too clean, but who were we to be particular!) that were to be ours for the trip. Soup was followed by fish, served with rice and *farinha*¹ in big platters from which we helped ourselves; roast beef, beans, and

¹ *Mandioca meal.*



Photograph by Ynés Mexía

AN AMAZON RIVER STEAMER



THICK GREEN VEGETATION GROWS TO THE WATER'S EDGE

Occasionally in a little clearing along the Amazon there is a small cabin with a palm-thatched roof.

more rice and *farinha* formed the third course. Dessert consisted of bananas and guava paste, followed by a *cafezinho* (a small cup of extremely strong, extremely sweet black coffee). This was a typical meal, we learned, for we ate virtually the same fare for lunch and dinner throughout the trip.

After our dinner we relaxed in deck chairs near the prow. We watched the stars poke through the sky, one by one. Soon a little curved moon rose and rode gaily up the skyways. Dense black masses on either side showed the nearness of the jungle hemming us into a boat-world all our own. *Cafezinhos* were served again at 10 p.m., and then to bed. Or to hammock!

At sundown a fresh breeze had risen which seemed like a young gale up by the pilot house. The wind was a huge reducing machine, buffeting our hammocks. Ship's officers and sailors passed to and fro

during the night. Once I woke at the sound of a deep voice, "*Sonde!*" And from far below came the answer, "*Tres braças e meia.*" Again, "*Sonde!*" "*Quatro braças.*"² We were in shallow water and the sailors were sounding the river as we crept cautiously forward. Later, I sat bolt upright at a sudden blast of the whistle directly above us. It was greeting a steamer going up stream.

In the morning a young sailor brought steaming *cafezinhos* while we were still blanket-wrapped. We hurried down to breakfast, a meal consistently slighted by Brazilians, to appease only slightly our sea-going appetites with hard crackers, rancid lard masquerading as butter, and more coffee.

The day passed swiftly as we read, lazed in the sun, and surveyed our fellow passen-

² Lead! . . . "Three fathoms and a half!" . . . "Lead!" "Four fathoms!"



Photograph by Ynés Méxía

BRAZILIAN JUNGLE

"I never tired of watching the jungle slide silently past."

gers. There were a Dane and his wife, vacationing from Manaus; a spectacled Catholic missionary in long black robe and leather sandals; Brazilian business men in white suits; one old fellow who never changed out of his pajama jacket, even for meals; Brazilian families in which the young girls were always carefully chaperoned by Mama; and several attractive young Brazilian couples.

I never tired of watching the jungle slide silently past. Thick green vegetation grew to the water's edge. Occasionally in a little man-made clearing stood a mud-brick hut with palm-thatched roof. A little boat on

the shore would attest to intimate living with the river. And, drawn by the sound of our boat, the whole family would line up to see us pass. Wild rubber trees were sometimes visible, and wisps of smoke rising from the jungle marked the spots where rubber was being smoked. Some of the clearings were fueling stations with logs piled high for the wood-burning steamers that still chug up and down the great river. We saw crude fence fish-traps, too, forming pens to catch the fish swimming along the shore.

As we came down into the delta region of the Amazon where the river separates into a thousand channels, the natives jumped into their little boats to ride the waves in our wake. This was recreation, but it served a practical purpose, too, for the frail craft, often hollowed out of logs, might easily dash to pieces against pier or on the shore as the waves piled into shore. Usually little boys manned the boats, yelling and waving, but frequently the men came, too—one with a dog visibly enjoying the performance from the prow, another with a little girl tucked under one arm. Women sometimes rode out, grinning toothily. Usually it was a single boat that met us, but once ten or twelve were riding the waves at once, coming out from a small river junction settlement.

Late in the afternoon a heavy but short rainstorm sent us scurrying into the crowded salon and cleared the air. A broad beautiful rainbow arched over the jungle at the storm's end. The green jungle seemed even greener, washed and refreshed. Flocks of parrots, chattering as they flew, crossed the river seeking evening shelter.

Intermittent showers disturbed our sleep that night. Canvas formed a roof over our heads, but a leaky one so that we had constantly to move our hammocks to elude the drip. My hammock let me down once with a thud but since it had been hung low I

was unhurt. At last I settled down directly over a number of hampers filled with tomatoes. As the wind twisted the ropes my hammock settled lower and lower until by morning I was lying on a bed of tomatoes, as red as roses but hardly as sweet.

I awakened in a gray dawn-light to see a trim sailboat slide silently by, her brilliant blue sails catching the fresh breeze and a saucy red light on her stern twinkling "Catch me if you can." Soon the whole boat was stirring, for we were due in Belém early. Every Brazilian donned his shiniest white suit or her brightest silk dress; black hair shone with oil; and the children ran madly over the decks chattering like little parrots

in their excitement. The ship's officers, whom we had seen only in blue denim with black insignia, now were resplendent in white and gold.

We pulled into the dock in Belém at 7 a.m. and I dreamed of a huge breakfast at the Grande Hotel. But no luck! It was Sunday; the Medical Examiner was late, very late! We hung over the deck railing, impatient prisoners, while wharf porters lined up opposite us and bargained by shout and gesture for the privilege of carrying the luggage ashore. Finally the "good Doctor" arrived, examined our yellow fever immunization papers, and sent us ashore. But we were too late for breakfast!



Courtesy of Brazilian Government Trade Bureau, N. Y.

BELÉM, THE END OF THE TRIP

Getting Acquainted with Latin America at Home and Abroad

EMILY PRICE DA SILVEIRA
Editorial Division, Pan American Union

IN the most diverse regions of the United States, in Vermont as well as Texas, in Ohio as well as California, centers of Hispanic culture will this summer be devoted to the interesting tasks of teaching students to converse fluently in Spanish and Portuguese, of training teachers of these languages, and of preparing material for elementary and high school courses on inter-American problems.

At some of these summer schools the students will have the opportunity of living in houses where Spanish or Portuguese will be spoken at all times. The pioneer among these is Middlebury College's *Escuela Española*, at Bread Loaf, Vermont, which has been in operation almost thirty years. The theory of the Middlebury Language Schools—and one that has had brilliant results in practice—is that the student should be isolated from all contact with English, speaking and hearing only the language of his study; so that during his six weeks at Bread Loaf, within sight of the scenic woodlands and Green Mountains of Vermont, he seems to be living in a Spanish speaking country. Outside the classroom, musical and dramatic programs, lectures, motion pictures, folk songs and dances, and informal association with the members of the faculty acquaint the Middlebury student with many phases of Spanish and Spanish American life.

The courses in the *Escuela Española* are designed for teachers of Spanish and for students who are already fairly advanced. An expert staff made up entirely of native

Spaniards and Spanish Americans, headed by Dr. Juan A. Centeno, will offer courses in Spanish grammar, composition, pronunciation, Spanish and Spanish American literature and civilization, and methods of teaching Spanish. Middlebury stresses training in pronunciation and intonation, and is proud to have Dr. Tomás Navarro Tomás, the authority in Spanish phonetics, as a member of its staff. Visiting Professor at Middlebury this summer will be Fernando de los Ríos, former ambassador of the Spanish Republic to the United States, who will give a course on the social, political, and cultural life of Spain in the 16th and 17th centuries.

At the opposite end of the continent, on a sunny campus where eucalyptus trees frame the Mediterranean-style buildings, Mills College's *Casa Panamericana* (at Oakland, California) welcomes students of Spanish, Portuguese, and Latin American culture, as well as teachers of the social sciences. The work of the *Casa* is complemented by that of the English Language Institute, which offers intensive training in English to Latin Americans and has a workshop to study the problems of teaching English to Spanish and Portuguese speaking students.

In the dining room of the *Casa* students sit at "Portuguese" or at "Spanish" tables, according to the language of their special study. As at Middlebury, the rule is "no English." Because of its proximity to San Francisco, the *Casa Panamericana* is able to

play host to many of the Latin American consuls and their families, an association which has proved of great value to the students. And the cooperation of the art and music summer schools at Mills helps to enrich the student's appreciation of many aspects of Latin American culture.

The *Casa Panamericana* staff, of which Rudolph Schevill is chairman, includes this year the noted Brazilian novelist Erico Verissimo.

The Latin American summer school at Mills developed around the nucleus of a Pan American Workshop for social science teachers. Originally subsidized by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, this workshop has established itself successfully and now continues without government aid, occupying an important place in the Mills program.

The success and popularity of the Inter-American Workshop program have assured its continuation and expansion. This year more than thirty colleges and universities throughout the country have received grants from the Office of Inter-American Affairs for workshops, and others will have inter-American lectures and institutes during the regular school term. The Division of Education and Teacher Aids of the Office of Inter-American Affairs, in cooperation with the United States Office of Education, operates a summer consultant service for the workshops. It also furnishes them with materials, educational exhibits, and films in English and Spanish on Latin American subjects.

The workshop programs are designed to meet varying needs of elementary and high school teachers. In some the emphasis is on social studies, and those participating work out social science courses on Latin America. This will be the program of the Claremont Colleges Workshop in Claremont, California. At the University of Alabama,

the workshop plans to produce a bulletin on this subject for use in the state schools.

Others study principally methods of teaching Spanish or Portuguese. At Columbia University's Teachers College a special workshop will train teachers of Portuguese. A Spanish workshop has been organized at the University of Richmond under the sponsorship of the Virginia Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish.

In the Southwestern states, some workshops will give special emphasis to the teaching of Spanish in the elementary grades; others will work on the problems of teaching children whose first language is Spanish. At the University of Texas Workshop, for instance, special training will be given to teachers of non-English-speaking beginners.

The workshop at the University of Puerto Rico will take up both Latin American studies and the teaching of English as a second language.

Some of the universities participating in the workshop program will have language residence houses, too. Western Reserve University, in Cleveland, Ohio, long noted for its teaching of languages, will have a Spanish Workshop and a Spanish House. The University of Florida is giving special importance to Portuguese in its summer study program and will have a joint Portuguese and Spanish House. Duke University, at Durham, North Carolina, will have a Spanish House.

The warm welcome which students from the United States find at the University of Habana Summer School was described by Miss E. Virginia Massimine of the New York City Public Schools in the article entitled *Learning Spanish with the Cubans* which appeared in the March 1945 issue of the BULLETIN.

The popularity with United States stu-

dents of summer study in Mexico has led to increasing cooperation between educational institutions in both countries. The famous Summer School for Foreign Students of the National University of Mexico will celebrate this year its 25th annual session, welcoming the Field School of the Universities of Michigan, New Mexico, and Texas. The Field School will offer courses in anthropology, art, economics, geography, geology, government, history, sociology, and Spanish, and students enrolled in it may also take courses at the National University Summer School and transfer their credits.

Texas State College for Women, which is conducting an Inter-American Workshop at Denton during the first summer term, will hold its regular summer session in Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico, from July 19 to August 29. The summer curriculum includes Spanish grammar, composition, and conversation, Mexican folklore, and Mexican literature and civilization. Lectures by Mexican professors are supplemented by periods of classroom recitation conducted by instructors from T.S.C.W. In return for the hospitality of the citizens of Saltillo, the college operates an English center for its hosts, where Mexicans of all ages may attend classes in English and enjoy the facilities of the English library.

Five other Texan institutions will be holding sessions in Mexico this summer. Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas, has a Mexican Field School which op-

erates in connection with the University of Puebla. Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos, is sponsoring a Spanish school in Mexico City, with a workshop in art. Sul Ross State Teachers College will have a workshop at Alpine, Texas, and a field school in Spanish and history in Chihuahua, Mexico. North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, will hold the Inter-American Institute at Morelia, which will offer courses in Spanish, art, and education, with the opportunity to observe educational methods in Mexican schools. The University of Houston's Summer Center of Mexico will have two terms, one in Mexico City, and the other divided between Mexico City, Guanajuato, Guadalajara, Acapulco, and Oaxaca; sociology will be the principal study, with emphasis on regional conditions in Mexico.

A limited number (around 125) of experienced teachers of Spanish who have been recommended by their city, county, or state superintendents of schools will be accepted at the Spanish Language Institute in Mexico City, which is sponsored by the United States Office of Education and the Department of State, in cooperation with the Mexican Minister of Public Education and the Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales.

That such ample opportunities are offered this summer to the student of Latin American civilization speaks well for past endeavors and for future understanding.

Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers

First Congress

NATALIO CHEDIAK

Secretary General

UNDER the chairmanship of Dr. Vicente Martínez Guitiño, the president of the General Association of Argentine Authors, the first Congress of the Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers, known from its Spanish initials as FISAC, was held at Habana from January 16 to 20, 1945, under the auspices of the Cuban Government. Fifty delegates assembled for the occasion. They represented the outstanding societies of authors, composers, and publishers of fifteen American countries and spoke also for more than eighteen official literary and scientific institutions especially interested in the progress of international copyright law, which is still in an unsatisfactory condition in the Americas and in the world at large. This was the first meeting held for the purpose of drawing up bases for joint action for the protection of the ethical and material interests represented by the federated societies, including the prevention of infringement of copyright and piracy. Much was accomplished to unify theory and practice for the united support of authors' and artists' rights.

At present the organizations affiliated with FISAC are the following:

General Association of Argentine Authors
Argentine Society of Authors and Composers
Argentine Writers' Society
Brazilian Dramatists' Society
Canadian Performing Rights Society
Colombian Society of Authors and Composers

National Corporation of Cuban Authors
Chilean Dramatists' Society
American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers (ASCAP)
Honduran Authors' Society
Mexican Union of Authors, Composers and Music Publishers
Panamanian Authors' Association
National Association of Writers and Artists of Lima
General Uruguayan Authors' Association
Venezuelan Writers' Association

The board of directors of FISAC is as follows:

President: Ovidio Fernández Ríos (Uruguay)
Vice Presidents: Luis A. Baralt (Cuba); Camilo de Brigard Silva (Colombia); Alfonso Esparza Oteo (Mexico); Ezequiel Martínez Estrada (Argentina); Henry T. Jamieson (Canada); John G. Paine (United States)
Secretary General: Natalio Chediak (Cuba)

Two permanent committees of the Federation were appointed:

FINANCE COMMITTEE: John G. Paine, *Chairman*. Camilo de Brigard and Luis A. Baralt
LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE: Geysa Boscoli (Brazil); Herman Finkelstein (United States); Walter S. Fisher (United States); Hugo Máximo Funes (Argentina); Angel B. Graña (Uruguay); Eduardo F. Mendilaharszo (Argentina); and Roberto Netto (Cuba). (Every affiliated society not represented by one of the foregoing will appoint an adviser.)

The Congress voted to create a section on Publishers Chambers of Commerce, the purpose of which is to coordinate the interests



Courtesy of Natalio Chediak

DELEGATES TO THE CONFERENCE OF THE INTER-AMERICAN FEDERATION OF AUTHORS AND COMPOSERS

of authors and publishers, cooperating with authors for the protection of their rights and helping the member chambers to increase the production and sale of books. This is the first such initiative in America and is especially noteworthy because of its integration in a federation designed to protect all the authors and composers in the hemisphere. At present the section consists of the Book Publishers Bureau of the United States and the Argentine, Cuban and Mexican Chambers. Professor Gonzalo Báez Camargo, of the Mexican Chamber, was named section president.

The Congress also took action to promote unified organization within each country with a view to consolidating the members of each branch of intellectual activity in a single society.

In the juridical field the Congress passed a resolution supporting the draft convention on the Protection of Literary, Scientific, and Artistic Works, prepared by the Pan Ameri-

can Union in accordance with Resolution XXXIX of the Eighth International Conference of American States. It requested, however, that when the definite instrument was drawn up, the conclusions and amendments proposed by the juridical subcommittee of the Congress should be taken into account and recommended that a special conference of experts should be called.¹

Another resolution provided for publication of an Inter-American Review of Authors' Rights.

It is to be hoped that collaboration among the member societies of FISAC will continue and grow and that common problems will be attacked by joint action leading to improved copyright protection for authors and artists.

¹ On April 4, 1945 a committee of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union renewed the recommendation made in 1942 that a special conference of experts on copyright be convened to improve the inter-American copyright system.

Music in the Americas

CHARLES SEEGER

Chief of the Music Division, Pan American Union

Oral and written traditions in the Americas

(Concluded)

It may be profitable to assume a neutral viewpoint from which to examine in equal perspective the unusually concentrated and continuous acculturation between oral and written traditions in the Americas today.

It is fruitless to discuss the subject in terms of the materials involved. Data are almost wholly lacking. Can we compare what happens in the weaving of a folk song or a folk tale into a symphony or a novel with what happens in the percolation of the story of the Titanic into a ballad, or the theory of relativity into a tall tale? It would seem we cannot. In themselves the two processes seem quite different and their operations veiled in obscurity. Superficially, the changes undergone by the materials involved seem quite similar. In both cases, old characteristics are lost and new gained. The borrowing is done, of course, for the benefit of the borrower. The donor tends to regard the material, when taken over by the borrower (receiver) as having been garbled. On the other hand, the borrower seems often to overvalue, if only because the mere act of borrowing solves a lot of troublesome technical and stylistic problems for him or gives him a subject when he lacks one. It seems better, therefore, to approach it in terms of the people who handle it.

Ideally, the problem should be handled as a scientific one, objectively and analytically.

Some day it probably will be. But for the present, it is conventionally posed as a critical one. Here, what one desires, rather than what is, seems the important thing. The controversy—for such it is—is a brisk one. The positions are well defined, though not always named. So, provided we maintain the neutral viewpoint and perspective, the *dicta* involved may become *data* for the student of trends. Of the many trends, four may be discerned here, in each tradition a folkloristic and a belletristic.

What I shall have to say about these trends does not apply to the adept of oral tradition who, consciously or unconsciously, sometimes weaves sophisticated notions gleaned from school books, newspapers, radio, or cinema, into his particular variant of oral tradition. Neither does it apply to the writer who, consciously or unconsciously, makes occasional use of folklore in a poem, story, or play, nor to the composer who similarly weaves a folk song into a symphony or an opera. These are, to all intents and purposes, oblivious of any tradition but their own. They maintain their heritages in relatively pure form. In their lives, contact with the opposite tradition is neither highly concentrated nor continuous. They do not represent trends away from their tradition, nor do they maintain their positions by opposing trends toward or away from them. These historical positions of folklore and belles-lettres are not to be confused with folklorism and belletrism. Folklore and belles-lettres have existed side by side, as

have the traditions they express with an almost automatic working relationship. It is chiefly at such times as the present when this working relation is upset by unusually concentrated and prolonged contact that folklorism and belletrism emerge as trends to be reckoned with.

The cue for application of the designation "folkloristic" is, for example, when the singer of folk songs begins to call himself a "folk singer." We have two types of self-styled "folk singers" in the Americas today. The one is born and bred in the domain of the oral tradition and becomes known as an outstanding ballad-singer, guitarist, or storyteller. Let us say that commercial enterprise puts him on discs or on the air. At once he is censored and edited. He must conform to procedures approved by the studio—procedures established through almost exclusive preoccupation with the written tradition. If he resists or fails to conform, he loses a well-paying job. If he consents to becoming "slick," there is adulation and higher pay for him. After a while, conventional mannerisms of concert performance become almost second nature to him. He begins to perform "with expression." Crescendos and diminuendos, accentuation of words with implications of joy and pathos or drama, utterly foreign to his heritage of oral tradition, begin to make their appearance, together with ritards in all sorts of places, but invariably at cadences. He becomes interested in fine singing. His attention is keyed to effect, smiling and trying to hold with eye and gesture the members of a real or imaginary audience by approved platform devices, many verging upon the fulsome and "cute." Upon the lower level of folk art plus popular art, it is "short-hair," "hillbilly," *música típica*. Upon the higher level of folk art plus fine art, it is "long-hair," "Folke Arte," *música pseudo-folclórica*.

The other type of self-labeled "folk

singer" is one born and bred in the domain of written tradition. Not making the grade as regular concert artist, he takes up folk music. Or perhaps a consummate artist—an Anderson, Robeson, Houston, or Coelho—gives welcome variety to a stereotyped program. Naturally, mannerisms of concert performance are evident here too. The *bel canto*, the expression, the inevitable ritards, the stressing of certain words, the compounding of simple meters and simple harmonies, etc., make a presentation strikingly complementary to the first example quoted. Upon a lower level, here it is a combination of popular and folk art—"short-hair," *música pseudo-típica*. Upon the higher level of fine art plus folk art, it is "long-hair," "city-billy," *música folclórica*, eventually sublimations such as some of the work of Villa-Lobos, Chávez and Copland.

The reverse process, belletrism—self-conscious manipulation of the materials of written tradition by the oral—is not so clearly distinguishable. Concrete products in the form of art works, or persons making them, are lacking, at least in recorded form. Modern scholarship has discredited the theory that a mystical process, known as "communal composition," is responsible for the great ballads of folklore. Rather, it is assumed, the original was the product of a trained writer, which, when submitted to the process known as "communal modification," gradually became a folk-ballad. Whether or not we accept the theory in its present state or suggest modification here and there, it seems beyond doubt that there are elements of written tradition in folklore, just as there are elements of folklore in written tradition. The exact location of the influence of the accessory is too far back of the recorded examples to permit citing of examples. The trend to belletrism seems, nonetheless, at work, as one can see in the operations of the Hays office in Hollywood, in the government subsidiza-

tion of fine arts, in isolationism generally, and in incipient fascist movements, where attitudes clearly stemming from oral traditions do strange things to written works and policies involving them. It is directly expressed in large-scale, long-term policy—not always as written, but as seen in action. It is the folklore of commerce and of government, acting as accessory to written tradition. Curiously enough, here it is the “long-hair” which seems to tend toward preservation of the written tradition, the “short-hair” verging, in extreme instances, upon the burning-of-the-books psychology.

Evidence of belletrism in written tradition itself can be seen in the work of composers who follow the external implications of the “universal” or cosmopolitan style, especially those who maintain their positions by deliberate resistance to the close contact into which the two traditions are thrown.

In the midst of these, and other, conflicting trends, the question “What is the effect of the suddenly stepped-up rate of acculturation between the two traditions (1) upon the donor, (2) upon the receiver?” seems impossible to answer. In spite of increased interpenetration and hybridization, both traditions seem strong. The drive for universal literacy certainly affects oral tradition. This seems to lose its older material at an increased rate. But its gain in new material may more than make up for this loss.

One of the factors to be watched in the situation is the latent hostility between adepts of the two traditions. This seems most marked in one tradition toward the most characteristic elements of the other; in the oral tradition, the performance of the average adept; and in the written, the more advanced thinking and farthest flights of scientific or artistic imagination. Is it possible that, instead of two distinct traditions, we may be working toward a single one in which each is represented? Should we strive for

this? Or should we strive to keep the integrity of both as we now know them?

Such speculation leads us back to the final questions: “Is the existence of an oral tradition necessary? Is it desirable? Can oral tradition exist as an entity in a totally literate society? Must it be especially cultivated to endure in such a society?”

Frankly, I cannot even pretend to say. Naturally, I have my predilections, and I suppose most people have theirs. We may hope that by 2045 there may be enough history of oral tradition and of its relation to written tradition to allow answer to some of these questions. But that is a long time to wait.

Perhaps some will say that such speculation is a waste of time—that such large considerations as the attitudes of hundreds of millions of people will be what they will be, irrespective of particular views. However, should a group care to express itself along these lines forcibly enough, its words might carry far beyond the individual statement of them. Unless I am quite in error, Hitler thought he would create the single tradition out of the two by abolishing the most characteristic (extreme) elements of both, *i.e.*, their creative function, their autonomy. This does not necessarily blacklist the concept of the single tradition.

We might postulate one retaining the most extreme and autonomous characteristic elements of both. This would be more in harmony with the democratic cultural strategy. My own predilection would be to preserve, for the present, the autonomy of both. It seems to me that in this way we would provide, during a period in which they are vitally in need and vitally in danger, two outlets for free thought and free speech. If one outlet is closed, the other may operate. Relations between the two traditions are, we must grant, bound to be more intimate. To keep one from dominating the other, to keep them both free as instruments of democratic processes,

should we not emphasize their differences? It certainly seems so. The question: "Should we cultivate the latent hostility?" is a moot one. I would say, no. There is already enough hostility in the universe of discourse. What we want is more cooperation and less competition (unless it be sublimated to the level of sheer artistic excellence). Perhaps we could divide the spheres of activity of the two traditions? But, on the other hand, perhaps each is a needed balance wheel or check upon the other?

A very concrete problem is: what shall we do with the oral tradition in the public schools. To introduce it would be nothing short of a revolution. To have it properly handled would take generations of teacher-training. But how better, may I ask, may we hope to remedy the lack of creative activity in the public schools, especially in music? Creative techniques—and especially

the teaching of them—are almost out of the question unless we approach them as improvisation. And in what idiom is improvisation more practical than that of folk music?

Perhaps the most important thing that educated people can do is to recognize oral tradition as a cultural entity, inevitable for the present, and perhaps invaluable for all time. Oral tradition is, above all, the voice of the great mass of people, not only in speech, but especially in music. At least for the present and foreseeable future, it expresses a number of things not expressible in written form, or at least more prone to expression in oral than in written form—the slow-to-change idiosyncrasies of regions and of localities, basic attitudes toward birth and marriage, life and death, the continuity of things grand but simple. Often it needs to be civilized. But often civilization needs to be humanized. Now, at least, one is as necessary as the other.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

The Chairman of the Commission a delegate to the Mexico City Conference

SEÑORITA Minerva Bernardino, Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, was a member of the Dominican delegation to the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace that took place in Mexico City from February 21 to March 8, 1945. She had the distinction of being the only woman delegate to the Conference, although Mexico and the United States included women advisers in their delegations. The former appointed Señora

Amalia C. de Castillo Ledón, Vice President of the Inter-American Commission of Women, and the latter, Mrs. Edith Nourse Rogers, representative from Massachusetts since 1925, and Miss Katharine Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor.

Resolutions of the Conference

The Conference gave a new impulse to the Commission and to the cause of women in the Americas by approving several resolutions concerned with the functioning of the Commission and the promotion of women's

rights. Readers of the BULLETIN will have observed that the resolution on the Reorganization, Consolidation, and Strengthening of the Inter-American System, published on page 257 of the May number, stated:

It is the desire of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace that there shall be taken into account the Inter-American Commission of Women, which for sixteen years has rendered eminent services to the cause of America and humanity, and that it be included among the organizations which form the Pan American Union, with the same prerogatives and position that have been accorded to other inter-American institutions of a permanent or emergency character that have functioned within or without the Pan American Union.

The following resolution on women's rights in the Americas was submitted by the delegations of the Dominican Republic and Mexico and passed by acclamation at the request of Dr. Pedro Calmón, a Brazilian delegate:

RIGHTS OF WOMEN IN THE AMERICAS

WHEREAS:

The Inter-American Commission of Women is an official agency, created by the Sixth International Conference of American States held at Habana in 1928, confirmed by the Seventh Conference held at Montevideo in 1933, and established on a permanent basis by the Eighth Conference held at Lima in 1938;

Since the creation of the Inter-American Commission of Women, established to work for the rights of women in America, political rights have been granted to women by the following countries: Ecuador (1929), Brazil (1932), Uruguay (1932), Cuba (1934), El Salvador (1939), the Dominican Republic (1942), and recently by Panama and Guatemala; the right to vote in municipal elections has been granted by Peru (1933), Chile (1934), Argentina, in some provinces, and Venezuela (1944), as well as in some states of Mexico; and the right of citizenship by Colombia (1945);

The Inter-American Commission of Women has worked and is working assiduously toward the fulfillment of the objectives and principles for which it was created;

The Commission is the only women's organiza-

tion of continental scope in America with official status, and as such is charged with studying the problems of women and advising the International Conferences of American States on the subjects with which it is entrusted, but since its inception it has enjoyed only to a certain extent the status and prerogatives accorded to other inter-American institutions working within or without the Pan American Union, on a permanent or an emergency basis;

The Inter-American Commission of Women justly aspires to the full economic cooperation which its duties and responsibilities require in order that it may achieve the highest degree of effectiveness in the fulfillment of the purposes for which it was created;

Women comprise more than half the population of America and in claiming full rights they are acting in the interest of the most elementary form of human justice,

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the Governments of the American Republics, in order to implement the declaration of the Eighth International Conference of American States, modify their legislation, with due regard to the conditions prevailing in their respective countries, so as to abolish any existing discriminations by reason of sex, which retard the prosperity and the intellectual, social and political development of the nations of this Continent.

2. That the Governments of the American Republics agree upon an annual quota, based on the respective population of the countries, for the maintenance of the Inter-American Commission of Women, as is being done with regard to other institutions functioning within the inter-American system.

*(Approved at the plenary session of
March 7, 1945)*

Other resolutions presented by the Mexican delegation supported by the action of the women from the United States and the Dominican Republic were the following:

CHARTER FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN

WHEREAS:

The aims of the American Republics for lasting peace and social justice can be achieved only if they are based on respect for the rights and ful-

fillment of the obligations of all citizens, and the moral and spiritual preparation of every citizen for life based on the principles of freedom, personal integrity, social justice, and effective social collaboration based on domestic law and international standards;

The family is the primary social institution for the formation of the mind and character of children, in accordance with these principles; and within the family the mother has chief responsibility for the atmosphere and surroundings of the home and the training of the citizens of the future;

In addition to their important role as wife, mother, and homemaker, and frequently as provider of the financial maintenance of the home, women have discharged successfully responsibilities as producers and wage-earners, in business, in the professions, and in government, as well as civic responsibilities, helping to form the social environment and creating the conditions of community life necessary for the welfare of the home and the child;

The part taken during the war by the women of the American Republics, as well as in other parts of the world, as members of the armed forces and as doctors, nurses, and in other technical and professional callings, as well as their services as producers in industry, agriculture, and commerce, working by the side of men in every aspect of the war effort and the maintenance of the civilian economy, has proved beyond question their capacity to meet all the responsibilities of citizenship and of professional and vocational life;

Declarations, agreements, and recommendations on the rights, opportunities, and protection of women and children and the preservation and strengthening of family life have been adopted by the Conferences of American States, notably in the Lima Declaration of Women's Rights; the International Labor Conferences and the Conferences of American States members of the International Labor Organization, notably in the statement on the "General Rights of Women" adopted by the Second Conference of American States members of the International Labor Organization; and the Pan American Child Congresses;

Many of the American Republics have not ratified or given full effect to the declarations, agreements, and recommendations of international conferences with respect to women, children, and the family;

The role of woman in the family, as a worker, in professional life, or in the discharge of her general responsibilities as a citizen of her com-

munity, her country, and the world, can be fulfilled only if all obstacles to her participation in industry, scientific work, the professions, government, and international activities are removed, and in addition, only if she is given full opportunity for an education that includes the formation of character, spiritual understanding and self-discipline, as well as practical preparation for her role in the home, and in vocational and civic activities.

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the countries that have not yet approved the agreements, declarations, and recommendations on behalf of women, children, and the family, agreed to in the different conferences and congresses enumerated above, ratify or put them into effect as soon as possible.

2. That in every country, through a special commission or an existing organization of government appropriate for the purpose, a study be made of the professional and vocational opportunities and the problems of women in the postwar period.

3. That there be established in every national department of health, social welfare or labor, sections devoted especially to the problems of women and children, under the direction of qualified women or administered with their full cooperation.

4. That there be entrusted to the Inter-American Commission of Women, in cooperation with the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, the International Labor Organization, and other international organizations interested in the subject, an extensive study of all aspects of family life and of the problems of women and children, as well as the opportunities, services, and protection required for their own welfare and the future of the human race.

5. That the conclusions and recommendations of this study, which should include a draft of a Charter for Women and Children, be submitted to the consideration of an International Conference of American States or to a Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics.

*(Approved at the plenary session of
March 7, 1945)*

COOPERATION OF WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

WHEREAS:

Democratic postulates contain absolute equality of rights and duties for individuals without dis-

inction as to sex, and women, as has been declared repeatedly at inter-American conferences and as experience has demonstrated, especially during the present war, are a factor of prime importance for the moral elevation and material progress of all nations,

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governments of the American Republics take into consideration the cooperation of women in the formation of their respective delegations to international conferences, including the forthcoming Conference to be held at San Francisco.

*(Approved at the plenary session of
March 7, 1945)*

The Inter-American Commission of Women was glad to undertake the new duties assigned to it by the Conference in cooperation with the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood and the International Labor Organization.

Senhora d'Araujo, a Brazilian visitor to the United States

Senhora Ignez B. C. d'Araujo, who wrote for the April 1945 number of the BULLETIN the appreciation of Dona Jeronyma Mesquita, the leader of social work in Brazil, is herself a leader in another field. That she is gifted as an author readers of the BULLETIN already knew from her three excellent articles on *Your Friend Brazil*, which appeared in 1940-41, although they may not have had the pleasure of reading her contributions on prominent American women and other subjects published in

Brazilian reviews. Many Americans have enjoyed the privilege of making the acquaintance of Sra. d'Araujo while she was a member of the Brazilian Commission to the Golden Gate Exposition, taking courses at Columbia, the George Washington University and at the New York and Chicago Schools of Filing and Indexing, and making special studies at the National Archives and in various government departments. To these courses she brought a background of European study in the Vatican Archives and at Monte Cassino.

In Brazil Sra. d'Araujo pioneered in the field of archives and filing, setting up files for the War Department and other branches of the government and giving the benefit of her training and initiative to the Ministry of Finance, the city government of Rio de Janeiro, and other offices. It became obvious that trained personnel was needed to apply the new techniques and accordingly Sra. d'Araujo organized the first School of Public and Business Administration and Management. This school is now a training ground for civil service employees, and has opened new vistas for the employment of women.

Sra. d'Araujo has given many addresses while she was in the United States, including several before large conventions. She participated last year in the Institute of World Affairs at Salisbury, Connecticut, and advised the Latin American Workshop of the Harvard University School of Education. All her contacts have served to give Americans not only a better knowledge of Brazil but also a warm and friendly feeling for her country.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

BOLIVIA

42. October 26, 1944. Reestablishment of diplomatic relations with the Government of Italy. (Mentioned in *El Diario*, La Paz, January 20, 1945.)

(Correction) Item No. 38, BULLETIN, April 1945, should have been numbered 43.

(Correction) Item No. 39, BULLETIN, April 1945, should have been numbered 44.

(Correction) Item No. 40, BULLETIN, April 1945, should have been numbered 45.

(Correction) Item No. 41, BULLETIN, April 1945, should have been numbered 46.

47. January 10, 1945. Supreme Decree suspending the political, police, and migratory restrictions imposed by previous legislation on

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

Italian subjects and declaring that the latter are now free to file naturalization papers and to apply for permits to leave or to return to Bolivia. (*El Diario*, La Paz, January 20, 1945.)

BRAZIL

147a. December 7, 1944. Decree-Law No. 7,141 "A", amending Decree-Law No. 7,024 of November 6, 1944 (see Brazil 126, BULLETIN, February 1945), concerning liquidation of the Lage Corporation holdings (shipping, shipyards, coal mines, construction, etc.). (*Diário Oficial*, December 13, 1944.)

172. January —, 1945. Order No. 7, Ministries of the Treasury and Foreign Affairs, subjecting to prior permit the importation of specified products, except for direct government imports for the manufacture of war materials and imports already

PART XXXIX

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR 8, 12STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	1Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	2Bulgaria 3Rumania 4Hungary	
Argentina.....	5 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(7)	8-22-42	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	8 2-12-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	9 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (10)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	11 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	12 G-2-11-45	12 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(13)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	8 2-14-45	8 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

contracted for before publication of this order. (*Diário Oficial*, January 23, 1945, mentioned in *Boletim Aéreo No. 334*, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, January 26, 1945.)

COLOMBIA

117*b*. March 29, 1944. Resolution No. 225, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 39 of October 6, 1943 (see Colombia 90*c*, BULLETIN, March 1944) to permit the importation of certain wheat flours under specified conditions. (*Resoluciones de la Interventoría de Precios*, *Boletín No. 2*, February 29-June 10, 1944, Bogotá.)

118*c*. March 30, 1944. Resolution No. 231, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 205 of March 22, 1944 (see Colombia 116, BULLETIN, August 1944) to permit issuance of export licenses for onions. (*Resoluciones de la Interventoría de Precios*, *Boletín No. 2*, February 29-June 10, 1944, Bogotá.)

150*a*. November 23, 1944. Resolution No. 647, National Price Control Office, fixing minimum prices for tobacco in the department of Santander. (*Diario Oficial*, January 25, 1945.)

152. January 9, 1945. Resolution, National Price Control Office, fixing prices for various cuts of beef in Bogotá. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 10, 1945.)

153. January 10, 1945. Resolution, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum retail prices for various drugs. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 11, 1945.)

154. January 12, 1945. Resolution, Office of Exchange Control and Exports, authorizing certain classes of exchange operations in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 736 of April 7, 1943 (see Colombia 63, BULLETIN, August 1943). (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 13, 1945.)

155. February 14, 1945. Resolution, National Price Control Office, requiring that shops and warehouses be plainly marked and their location, ownership, and purpose registered at local price control offices; adopted as a measure to prevent monopolies. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, February 15, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

179*a*. December 21, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 36, directing the National Council of Produc-

tion to fix prices at which rice, sugar, beans, and corn produced in Costa Rica shall be purchased by the National Bank for distribution; directing the National Council of Production in case of a production deficit to arrange for duty-free importation of these commodities through the National Bank; and directing that wholesale and retail distribution prices be fixed by the Economic Defense Board in consultation with the Department of Agriculture and in accordance with the purchase prices fixed by the National Bank. Effective for four years from date of publication. (*La Gaceta*, December 22, 1944.)

CUBA

661*a*. (Correction) September 29, 1944. (*Gaceta Oficial*, October 9, 1944, p. 16742.)

692*i*. December 20, 1944. Resolution No. 282, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring motor vehicle owners to present declarations of their tires and tubes, as an aid to reorganization and perfecting of the tire and tube distribution service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1944, p. 22407.)

694*a*. January 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4, prescribing rules and regulations governing sugar production and distribution in 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 3, 1945, p. 161.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

134*a*. (Correction) June 3, 1944. Law No. 618. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 7, 1944.)

154. December 30, 1944. Law No. 781, establishing control over the importation of seeds and the sale of imported seeds. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 4, 1945.)

155. January 2, 1945. Regulation No. 2378, governing the exportation of alcohol and alcoholic products, in accordance with Law No. 618 of June 3, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 134*a*, BULLETIN, December 1944 and above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 10, 1945.)

156. January 29, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2433, regulating prices of alcoholic beverages. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 31, 1945.)

ECUADOR

87*i*. August 23, 1944. Resolution No. 14, Minister of Economy, authorizing importers and dealers in imported flour to carry out their flour transactions in any market in the Republic and prescrib-

ing pertinent rules and regulations. (*Registro Oficial*, September 29, 1944.)

87₂. August 25, 1944. Resolution No. 20, Minister of Economy, requiring sugar mills to deliver to the Government, through the Central Bank, their entire sugar output at current prices, in order better to enable the Government to assure the procurement of amounts required for national consumption. (*Registro Oficial*, September 29, 1944.)

89_a. September 4, 1944. Resolution No. 34, Minister of Economy, substituting the National Development Bank (*Banco Nacional de Fomento*) for the National Bank of Ecuador as the depository for blocked funds handled by the Blocked Property Control Office (see Ecuador 57, BULLETIN, December 1943 and April 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, September 29, 1944.)

89_b. September 9, 1944. Resolution No. 37, Minister of Economy, amending Decree No. 179 of June 22, 1944 (see Ecuador 74_d, BULLETIN, December 1944), by fixing the quantity of rice to be delivered by exporters to the National Development Bank at 45 instead of 50 percent. (*Registro Oficial*, September 29, 1944.)

90_a. September 19, 1944. Legislative Decree authorizing the U. S. Army Commissary to export a specified quantity of rice and waiving in this instance the prior export permit requirements fixed by Presidential Decree No. 179 of June 22, 1944 (see Ecuador 74_d, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, September 19, 1944.)

92_b₁. November 1, 1944. Presidential Resolution No. 90-bis, fixing the price of petroleum residuals in the port of Guayaquil. (*Registro Oficial*, December 12, 1944.)

92_d. November 17, 1944. Resolution No. 108, Minister of Economy, requiring that all imported machetes be placed at the disposal of the Foreign Trade Offices of the Ministry of Economy, in order that their distribution may be controlled by that Ministry or the Development Banks. (*Registro Oficial*, January 3, 1945.)

93. Presidential Resolution No. 111. (*Registro Oficial*, December 9, 1944.)

94. December 4, 1944. Legislative Decree establishing price control for food and articles of prime necessity through the creation of local Food Price Control Boards, and prescribing measures to regulate their distribution through a National Dis-

tributing Agency (*la Distribuidora Nacional*). (*Registro Oficial*, December 13, 1944.)

EL SALVADOR

100. January 9, 1945. Executive Decree fixing maximum prices to be charged by producers and wholesalers for refined and yellow sugar, and prescribing penalties for infractions of the price regulations. (*Diario Oficial*, January 24, 1945.)

101. January 22, 1945. Executive Decree fixing the maximum price per 110-gallon barrel of molasses of a specified quality. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

GUATEMALA

129_a. January 18, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 20, approving Revolutionary Junta Decree No. 24 of November 30, 1944 (see Guatemala 125, BULLETIN, March 1945), which fixed temporary new minimum and maximum government pensions in view of increased living costs. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 13, 1945.)

132. February 14, 1945. Decree No. 62, Revolutionary Junta, prescribing penalties for foreigners guilty of activities connected with or furthering the interests of totalitarian systems, and for Guatemalans implicated in such activities. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 14, 1945.)

133. February 14, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 43, approving, with certain amendments, Revolutionary Junta Decree No. 49 of January 18, 1945 (see Guatemala 129, BULLETIN, May 1945), which repealed Presidential Decree No. 2981 of October 20, 1942 (see Guatemala 44, BULLETIN, February 1943) and imposed a lower tax on domestic matches. (*Diario de Centro América*, March 7, 1945.)

134. February 28, 1945. Decree No. 68, Revolutionary Junta, amending Decree No. 24 of November 30, 1944 (see Guatemala 125, BULLETIN, March 1945, and 129_a above) to provide for temporary increases in certain government pensions not specified in the aforementioned decree. (*Diario de Centro América*, March 8, 1945.)

HAITI

98_b. August 11, 1944. Decree-Law No. 412, authorizing the issuance of a special 5-centime postage stamp, the use of which is compulsory on all mail beginning August 15, 1944; the proceeds of the sale of such stamps to be sent monthly to the

National War Fund, United Nations Relief Wing, New York, as Haiti's contribution to the relief of war victims. (*Le Moniteur*, August 14, 1944.)

100. October 23, 1944. Note, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, addressed to the French National Committee of Liberation, announcing Haiti's recognition of the Provisional Government of the French Republic. (*Le Moniteur*, November 2, 1944.)

101. October 26, 1944. Recognition by the Government of Haiti of the Italian Government. (*Le Moniteur*, November 2, 1944.)

102. October 30, 1944. Communiqué, Under Secretary of the Presidency, announcing that the President amended the decrees of March 19, 1942 and July 15, 1942, which prohibited the reexportation of specified articles (see Haiti 37 and 49, BULLETIN, July, August, and December 1942), to include food products under the reexportation prohibition. (*Le Moniteur*, October 30, 1944.)

HONDURAS

42a. November 29, 1944. Presidential Order No. 183, adding two members to the Honduran Committee on Postwar Problems which was created by Presidential Order No. 290 of February 17, 1944 (see Honduras 39a, BULLETIN, November 1944). (*La Gaceta*, February 22, 1945.)

MEXICO

259i. August 2, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

276a. November 10, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, January 15, 1945.)

277a. November 21, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1945.)

278i. November 22, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business,

supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1945.)

278s. November 22, 1944. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1945.)

278a. November 22, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1945.)

284a. December 28, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, January 16, 1945.)

286a. January 2, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, March 1, 1945.)

286b. January 5, 1945. Decree supplementing the decree of September 24, 1943, which froze rents in the Federal District (see Mexico 201a, BULLETIN, February 1944), by extending in favor of lessees, for the duration of the war, all leases on properties used for specified commercial purposes (food, milk, tobacco, and charcoal stores) and making applicable to such leases all the provisions of the decree of July 10, 1942, which prohibited rent increases (see Mexico 56a, BULLETIN, November 1942), and of the above-mentioned decree of September 24, 1943. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1945.)

286c. January 12, 1945. Decree prescribing rules governing application of the decree of December 2, 1944, which authorized emergency increases in railway rates (see Mexico 281, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, February 26, 1945.)

287a. January 18, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill, in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199,

BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, March 1, 1945.)

287*b*. February 1, 1945. Decree appointing a Committee charged with the distribution among industrialists of imported rayon fiber and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diario Oficial*, February 26, 1945.)

289. February 21, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit, amending the sugar prices fixed for the Republic by the decree of November 29, 1944 (see Mexico 278*b*, BULLETIN, April 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, February 22, 1945.)

290. March 6, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit and the Chief of the Department of the Federal District, fixing prices for specified articles of prime necessity for the Republic and the Federal District, in accordance with the decree that became effective October 26, 1944 (see Mexico 270, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, March 8, 1945.)

291. March 7, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit, fixing the price of cacao throughout the Republic, in accordance with the decrees of January 18, 1944 and October 25, 1944 (see Mexico 227 and 270, BULLETIN, April 1944 and January 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, March 20, 1945.)

292. March 14, 1945. Circular No. 309-2-21, Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit, specifying the types of wool subject to import restrictions in accordance with the decree of April 15, 1944 (see Mexico 243*a*, BULLETIN, August 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, March 21, 1945.)

NICARAGUA

62*a*. August 2, 1944. Legislative Decree approving the agreement of June 29, 1944, between the Republic of Nicaragua and the Export-Import Bank of Washington, which extended to December 31, 1944, the contract signed December 16, 1941 (see Nicaragua 7*a* and 9, BULLETIN, May 1942) by the Republic of Nicaragua and the Export-Import Bank. (*Revista Comercial de Nicaragua*, Managua, October 1944).

65. December 6, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 334, clarifying certain provisions of Legislative Decree No. 299 of August 4, 1944 (see Nicaragua 63, BULLETIN, January 1945) in regard to dis-possession of tenants. (*La Gaceta*, December 11, 1944.)

PARAGUAY

71. January 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6815, amending previous legislation concerning local price control boards and prescribing new regulations concerning their establishment and functions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 16, 1945.)

72. January 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6835, fixing basic prices for agricultural products of the 1944-45 crop year. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 16, 1945.)

73. February 13, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7229, authorizing an emergency increase, with certain specified exceptions, in railway rates. (*El País*, Asunción, February 14, 1945.)

URUGUAY

178*b*. December 16, 1943. Law providing for decreases in and stabilization of real property rents throughout the Republic, effective to December 31, 1944, and prescribing pertinent regulations. (*Diario Oficial*, December 27, 1943.)

243. December 1, 1944. Presidential decree amending the decree of November 22, 1943, relative to rubber rationing (see Uruguay 174, BULLETIN, April 1944), by making new provisions concerning the acquisition of tires and tubes. (*Diario Oficial*, December 7, 1944.)

244. December 4, 1944. Law extending to December 31, 1945 the provisions of the law of December 16, 1943, concerning rent reductions and stabilization (see Uruguay 178*b* above). (*Diario Oficial*, December 19, 1944.)

245. December 5, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 608/944, prescribing a more liberal system for the acquisition of gum lac than that provided by Decree No. 608/944 of April 14, 1944 (see Uruguay 200, BULLETIN, September 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, December 21, 1944.)

246. December 29, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1355/944, prescribing measures for control of the 1944-45 wheat crop. (*Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1945.)

247. January 17, 1945. Presidential decree fixing prices for the current wheat crop, flour, and bread, and prescribing regulations to govern distribution and sale. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

248. January 22, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1265/943, fixing a new lower price for heavy fuel oil. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

249. January 22, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2015/943, fixing prices for a new alcoholic beverage (*caña añeja de lujo*) manufactured by ANCAP. (*Diario Oficial*, January 29, 1945.)

250. January 26, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 345/945, appointing a committee charged with studying measures to facilitate the loading and prompt dispatch of vessels. (*Diario Oficial*, February 3, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

151a. April 24, 1944. Resolution No. 6, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, regulating the application of Article 9 of Decree No. 241 of November 9, 1943 (see Venezuela 126, BULLETIN, April 1944), which provided for trusteeship, expropriation, liquidation, and transfer of properties of governments or nationals of states at war with any American country or of nations occupied by such states. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1944.)

196a. December 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 300, creating the Administrative Committee on Refugees to study and plan the immigration of refugees to Venezuela. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 29, 1944.)

198. January 15, 1945. Resolution No. 3, Office of Agricultural Economy, Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock, requiring growers and owners of rubber of the Sapium variety to sell their product at specified prices to the Agricultural and Livestock Bank, or to the buyer indicated by the Bank. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 15, 1945.)

199. January 25, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, requiring a specified firm to liquidate its business in Venezuela within ninety days, in accordance with Decree No. 241 of November 9, 1943, and its Regulation of April 24, 1944 (see Venezuela 126 and 151a, BULLETIN, April 1944 and above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 25, 1944.)

200. January 31, 1945. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, declaring sewing machines and corn grinders articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 31, 1945.)

201. February 15, 1945. Recognition by Venezuela of the existence of a state of belligerency with Germany and Japan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 15, 1945.)

202. February 19, 1945. Resolution No. 27, Customs Office, Ministry of the Treasury, extend-

ing until June 7, 1945, the provisions of Resolution No. 391 of November 18, 1944 (see Venezuela 189, BULLETIN, March 1945), allowing duty-free importation of Roman cement. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1945.)

203. February 20, 1945. Resolution No. 26, National Supply Commission, fixing prices for new imported truck bodies requiring declarations of stocks of such bodies; and providing that they can be sold only to those persons expressly authorized by the Commission to acquire them. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

204. February 21, 1945. Resolution No. 5, Office of Public Health, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, putting the Venezuelan Child Welfare Council in sole charge of the distribution and sale of penicillin. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 21, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

152a. June 29, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Nicaragua and the Export-Import Bank of Washington extending to December 31, 1944, the agreement signed between the said Government and Bank on December 16, 1941, for the extension by the latter to the former of a \$2,000,000 line of credit. (*Revista Comercial de Nicaragua*, Managua, October 1944.)

171a. December 7, 1944. Final Act of the International Civil Aviation Conference which met at Chicago, November-December 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 170, BULLETIN, February 1945), including the following documents: a general air-navigation and air-transportation convention, together with comprehensive annexes on twelve different technical subjects; an interim agreement setting up an interim organization to function until the organization provided for in the over-all convention is established (effective when accepted by 26 nations); an International Air Services Transit Agreement (the Two Freedoms); and an International Air Transport Agreement (the Five Freedoms). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 31, 1944, and March 18, 1945.)

173b. January 19, 1945. Announcement by the President of the United States and the Prime Ministers of Great Britain and Canada of their decision to maintain the Combined Production and Resources Board, the Combined Raw Materials Board, and the Combined Food Board until the end of the war with Japan. (See Bilateral and

Multilateral Measures 21, 19, and 117*b*, BULLETIN, January and August 1943 and February 1944.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 28, 1945.)

174. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

174*a*. January 30, 1945. Signature by Guatemala of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, the International Air Services Transit Agreement (Two Freedoms), and the International Air Transport Agreement (Five Freedoms). (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171*a* above.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, February 4, 1945.)

177*a*. February 19, 1945. Civil Air-Transport Agreement between Canada and the United States. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, February 25, 1945.)

181*a*. February 28, 1945. Adherence by Egypt to the Declaration by United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, March 4, 1945.)

181*b*. February 28, 1945. Adherence by Turkey to the Declaration by United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, March 4, 1945.)

183. March 10, 1945. Signature by Costa Rica of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, the International Air Services Transit Agreement (Two Freedoms), and the International Air Transport Agreement (Five Freedoms). (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171*a* above.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, March 11, 1945.)

184. April 9, 1945. Meeting in Washington of a Committee of Jurists of the United Nations, invited by the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China, preliminary to the United Nations Conference at San Francisco, to prepare a draft statute for the International Court of Justice which is to become a part of the International Organization. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 1, 1945.)



Pan American News

Postponement of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference

THIS Conference, scheduled to open in Washington on June 15, 1945, was postponed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union because of the possibility that it might conflict with the San Francisco Conference on International Organization. Furthermore the resolutions adopted at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace will also involve a modification of the program and the preparation of additional material. The date now set is November 15, 1945, and the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee has been requested to consider modifications to be made in the program that has already been drawn up.

Guatemala's new constitution

A constituent assembly was elected in Guatemala as one of the sequels of the revolution which overthrew the dictatorship in October 1944. This assembly was instructed to draw up, not a series of amendments, but a wholly new constitution. After months of detailed labor the new constitution was published under date of March 11, 1945. It preserves most of the main features of Guatemala's traditional frame of government, as embodied in the constitution of 1879 with its amendments of 1887, 1897, 1927, and 1935, but it enlarges the base of citizenry upon which that government rests, and it broadens and strengthens the protection guaranteed by law to all Guatemalans. At the same time it reinforces throughout the governmental structure prohibitions and precautions designed to

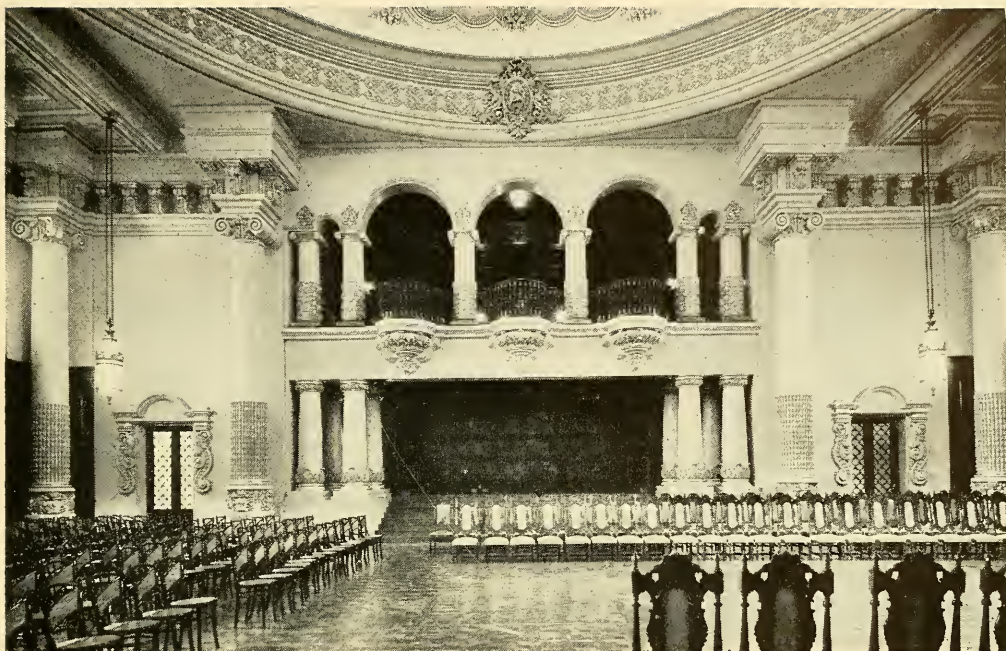
frustrate any future attempts at prolonging a presidency in the manner that has led Guatemala into dictatorships in former years.

The keynote of the new constitution is sounded in Article I, which repeats the old constitution's opening statement that Guatemala is "free, sovereign, and independent," but amplifies it to describe Guatemala as "a republic organized for the primary purpose of ensuring for its inhabitants the enjoyment of freedom, education, economic welfare, and social justice."

Position of women.—The new constitution gives citizenship, and with citizenship the right to vote and hold office, to Guatemalan women over 18 who can read and write. For men the age remains at 18, but the literacy requirement does not hold; male illiterates may vote and are eligible for municipal office, although they may not hold any office under the national government. All voting is to be by secret ballot except in the case of these male illiterates, who if they choose to vote must do so in public. Voting is compulsory for male citizens who can read and write; for those who cannot, and for literate women, it is optional.

Government employment is open to men and women on the same terms. The principle of equal pay for equal work, regardless of sex or race, is to apply in private as well as in public employment. All forms of discrimination are expressly prohibited, whether based on sex, race, religion, color, class, or political creed. Family laws are to be founded on equality of rights for husband and wife, and for all children regardless of civil status.

Standards of economic and social welfare.—Labor and welfare standards are for-



Courtesy of Delfino Sánchez Latour

HALL IN THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, GUATEMALA CITY

mulated in the new chapters which have added social guarantees to the individual guarantees provided by the amendments of 1935. They call for periodic revision of minimum wage standards, payment in legal tender, a weekly rest day and an annual paid vacation, a maximum week of 48 hours for day work and 36 hours for night work, paid vacations before and after childbirth, and compulsory contributory social security. Co-operative enterprises, especially consumer co-operatives in labor centers, are to receive government support, monopolies are forbidden, and latifundia are prohibited and are to be absorbed for the benefit of the collectivity through measures of taxation and legislation.

The Congress.—Powers and duties of the Congress are substantially the same as those assigned by the old constitution to the Legislative Assembly, with the new reservation that powers of legislation belong originally

to the people and are only delegated by them to the Congress. Members of Congress are elected for four years as before, but under the new charter they may not serve for two successive terms.

The two regular sessions are limited to a maximum total of six months in a year, as before. But the Congress as now organized has greater scope, for under the new constitution its special session is not restricted to the subject named in the call, but may by a two-thirds vote take up whatever question it chooses; and a special session may be convened at the request of any fifteen members. Further power is conferred on the Congress by a measure of cabinet responsibility; when a cabinet member is called before Congress for questioning, such interpellation may be followed by a vote of no confidence, and in that case, if the vote is sustained, the minister is expected to resign.

The Presidency.—Powers and duties of the

President are not greatly changed. They include the old power to suspend certain of the constitutional guarantees in time of national peril, but with a new requirement that such action be promptly reported to the Congress, summoned in special session if necessary, to be ratified, amended, or disapproved. The presidential term is again fixed at six years, with no reelection until after a lapse of twelve years; special safeguards surround this prohibition, and no change which might affect it is permitted.

Three alternates were provided in the revisions of 1927 and 1935, to succeed in their order in case of the President's temporary incapacity to serve, and to arrange for new elections in case of his death or permanent disability. The new document discards this device, and names for these duties the president of the Congress, to be followed in order by the vice-presidents of the Congress and the chief justice of the Supreme Court.

The new constitution retains the salutary rule that the President, his cabinet ministers, and numerous other high officials must file financial statements upon taking office, each one listing his personal property and his debts, so that at the close of his term, or even earlier, another accounting may be made and comparisons drawn.

The army.—Members of the armed forces may not be elected to the presidency or to Congress. They must all swear allegiance not only to the nation but to the principles of democracy and of rotation in office; and they may be called upon for cooperation in communications work, reforestation, and agriculture. The chief of the armed forces is to be selected by Congress for a six-year term, and Congress may remove him for cause.

Municipal government.—Mayors of municipalities will no longer be appointed by the national government, but will be chosen, with their councils, by direct popular vote. Local revenues will be fixed by the municipi-

palities, with government approval in cases wherein the law so determines.

Budget and accounting.—New financial chapters provide for the initiation and administration of an annual budget through which all funds must clear, and for a centralized system of accounting, with jurisdiction over all matters of national and municipal finance.

Central American solidarity.—Expressions of solidarity with the other republics of Central America are a traditional feature of Guatemala's constitution. The new document repeats these in even stronger terms, and adds an announcement that Guatemala continues to regard Belize as part of the nation's territory.—C.C.C.

Agrarian plan for Chile

Chilean agriculture will be stimulated and its yield increased by the coordination provided in the new agrarian plan, which received the cabinet's formal approval in January 1945. In order that the population may enjoy a more ample quantity and variety of good foods, the area devoted to agriculture is to be much increased, while at the same time the land already under cultivation is to be used to better advantage. Farm prosperity will in its turn ensure a larger home market for the nation's industries, and ultimately lead to an increase in foreign trade.

More than a million acres of land not now being cultivated will be added to the nation's farming territory as the plan develops its project of irrigation works. This irrigation project will also bring an increased yield to about 250,000 acres of land that is already being farmed but is producing only meager crops for lack of proper water supply. Expansion of the road system in central and southern Chile will connect more farms with their markets, and farm pioneering is to be promoted, especially in Aisén and Chilöé.

Further economies can be effected by, re-



Courtesy of the Chilean Tourist Bureau

CHILEAN FARMERS

distributing various crops in localities most favorable for production and marketing. Thus the region south of Bío Bío would supplement its stockraising and dairy industry with potatoes, cereals, and sugar beets, and give much attention to its rich lumber resources; Magallanes would specialize in sheep, and Aisén and Chiloé in sheep and cattle. Changes in the system of land ownership would contribute to the same end by opening up to production parts of large estates that are not now being utilized, and also by combining into efficiently workable units some of the holdings that are now too small to permit sufficient rotation of crops.

The plan recommends a wider use of farm machinery, with the object of increasing production, releasing for other crops some of the land now used for feeding work animals,

and relieving some of the difficulties now presented by heavy seasonal increases in farm labor demands. To facilitate transportation, marketing, and exportation, the plan proposes organization of meat milling, truck-garden, wine; and lumber corporations, all with government participation. The state is also expected to help in the building of warehouses, elevators, cold storage plants, and dehydrating plants, and to fix standards for the grading of agricultural produce.

Experts who assisted in the formulation of the new plan have estimated that even on the basis of its present population Chile needs to increase its milk production by 133 percent, its meat by 62 percent, potatoes by 23 percent, and green vegetables by 100 percent; fruit and egg production must also be very greatly increased, and the consumption of

wheat reduced by about 38 percent. The standard of nutrition represented by these figures is believed to be attainable in a period of approximately ten years, although some of the plan's more ambitious features will require a longer time for their development.

New industries in Mexico

The Government of Mexico has recently authorized the establishment of several new industries, which will be exempt from taxation for five years and will be permitted to import necessary equipment duty free. They will manufacture machinery, machine tools, windmills, Diesel motors, airplanes, chemicals, electric bulbs, and oil and gas stoves.

As part of the program of the Mexican-American Commission for Economic Cooperation¹, Mexico has acquired in the United States for the development of its industries machinery valued at \$10,330,964. The machinery and equipment will be used for the construction of hydroelectric plants, an iron and steel plant, a copper company, a textile manufacturing company, a plant for the manufacture of hydrated lime, a factory for the manufacture of airmail and cigarette paper, the Canada Dry Bottling Company of Mexico, a plant for the production of tin cans, a bottle factory, and a coal company.

Farm mortgages in Colombia

Colombia's Farm Mortgage Bank had overcome many difficulties and risen to a position of strength and efficiency when at the beginning of the calendar year 1945 it was placed under the administration of the Office of Agrarian, Industrial, and Mining Credit. During its twenty years of life the Bank was exposed to the unwholesome ex-

pansion of the 1920's and then to the dangers of the depression. Farm mortgages, many of them placed with insufficient regard to productive capacity and economic soundness, suffered even more than other securities from the financial storms which Colombia did not escape in the early 1930's; losses were so great that by the middle of 1934 the Farm Mortgage Bank had no reserves and showed a deficit of 11,500,000 pesos.¹

From this situation the Bank succeeded in extricating itself. Firm policies of retrenchment and revision were begun at once, and within ten years they had achieved their purpose. By the end of 1944 the Bank's capital and reserves had been rebuilt, and the deficit had been completely wiped out. Collections had been regularized and contested obligations had been liquidated. Holders of foreign bonds had been offered a conversion to 30-year national bonds at 3 percent interest, service on which was to be maintained by the Colombian government, and before the end of 1944 more than 60 percent of the issue had been converted. By that time the Bank was holding a portfolio of about 22,000,000 pesos,¹ in which rural loans amounted to 18,400,000 pesos and city property loans to only 3,500,000 pesos; its cash in hand was 3,000,000 pesos, and it was successfully operating 31 branches and agencies in various parts of the country.

Brazil in the Pan American Highway System

Brazil's National Highway Plan (see BULLETIN, October 1944, pp. 597-599) has been systematically formulated with the dual purpose of improving communications within the country and of joining with highways of neighboring countries to form part of

¹ See BULLETIN, December 1943, pp. 676-681, and April 1945, pp. 211-216.

¹ The Colombian peso is worth \$0.57.



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PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY SYSTEM

The map shows the highways and projected highways linking Rio de Janeiro with other American capitals.

a vast continental and inter-American system. Projected international routes will link Rio de Janeiro with Montevideo, Buenos Aires, Asunción, La Paz, and Lima.

The route to Montevideo is almost complete. It utilizes the southern half of Brazil's 3,800-mile Getúlio Vargas Highway; and the Jaguarão River bridge, constructed jointly by Uruguay and Brazil, forms the link with the highway leading to the Uruguayan capital.

Communication with Buenos Aires will be effected via the Getúlio Vargas Highway as far as Pôrto Alegre, and the transverse highway of the state of Rio Grande do Sul from Pôrto Alegre to Uruguiana, where a bridge over the Uruguay River is being built by joint action of the Argentine and Brazilian governments.

Of especial interest is the route which will lead from Curitiba (on the Getúlio Vargas Highway) to Asunción, through the Iguassu River valley, for it will facilitate a direct link between Asunción and the excellent port of Paranaguá, the nearest coastal point to Curitiba. Furthermore, this highway will open up the fertile western region of the State of Paraná, with its virgin pine forests and its wide marshy plains, suitable for the cultivation of yerba maté.

At the same time, this highway will make connection with the lower Paraná River, which is navigable from that point all the way to Buenos Aires. A smaller route branching off from this highway will lead to the famous waterfalls called Sete Quedas, making that scenic attraction accessible to tourists, as well as providing a point of contact with the navigable portion of the upper Paraná. The transverse highway of Southern Mato Grosso, crossing the Paraná at Pôrto Epitácio, will join the Paraná and the Paraguay River basins, and reach the Paraguayan border at Pôrto Murtinho.

Another transverse highway, starting at São Paulo, will lead through Corumbá to La

Paz. By following the route of the Northwest Railway from Campo Grande to Pôrto Esperança along the slopes of the Bodoquena mountains it will avoid the risk of floods and will be able to take advantage of the railway-highway bridge over the River Paraguay which is now under construction at Pôrto Esperança.

The route from Rio de Janeiro to Peru will pass through Belo Horizonte, Cuiabá, and Cruzeiro do Sul. Construction has already begun on the highway from Rio de Janeiro to Cruzeiro do Sul. It is being laid out with a view to following the most picturesque route through every region.

Right-hand driving

The uniformity of right-hand driving will soon be complete throughout the Americas. Paraguayan drivers changed from the left to the right side of the road at midnight on February 24, 1945, and Argentina is preparing to make the shift on June 10. In Uruguay, the last remaining country in which left-hand driving has been the rule, the Department of Montevideo has fixed July 1 as the date for the change, and it is expected that the other departments will soon follow suit.

New highway in Honduras

A newly opened section of highway in Honduras not only provides the essential link in the coast to coast route across the country, but has helped to solve a very serious economic crisis.

By the end of 1942 the joint effect of the Axis submarine campaign in the Caribbean and the shortage of shipping space for other than essential war materials had nearly paralyzed Honduran banana exportation. This meant that nearly 15,000 men who had been employed on banana plantations were out of work.

It was decided to construct a highway around Lake Yojoa, with United States co-operation. This lake had always formed a barrier to cross-country traffic, making necessary the transfer of passengers and freight to boats, which had to travel the length of the lake, a distance of about 25 miles.

Since little machinery was available for the project, a large part of the work had to be done by hand. The labor was Honduran; the United States contributed financial backing and the services of technicians. The Inter-American Public Health Service operated effectively in trying to eliminate the danger of malaria to the hundreds of workmen. At one time about 2,000 men were employed on the road, which is 45 miles long.

The highway is macadam on crushed stone. Insofar as it was possible, native materials were used for the construction. The road runs from Pito Solo, at the southern end of the lake, to Potrerillos. Near Agua Azul, and close to the waters of the lake, a commemorative column has been erected bearing the following inscription in Spanish: "Pito Solo-Potrerillos Inter-oceanic Highway. Built by the Republic of Honduras with the co-operation of the United States of America, 1943-1944. Dedicated to the cause of friendship and peace."

Reorganization of the Argentine armed forces

Two Argentine decree-laws which became effective November 1, 1944 reorganized the army and set up the air force as a separate unit of the armed services. In the army the rank of "Lieutenant General," *Teniente General*, was replaced by that of "General of the Army," *General de Ejército*, a rank to be accorded only to the commander in chief. A table of officer ranks of the Argentine Army and Air Force is listed below as a

supplement to *Officer Ranks of the Armed Forces of the Western Hemisphere* compiled by Francis Millet Rogers, Lieutenant Colonel, U. S. M. C. R., which appeared in the January 1945 issue of the BULLETIN. Navy ranks remain the same as then listed.

ARGENTINA

	ARMY	AIR FORCE
9.	General de Ejército	Brigadier General
8.	General de División	Brigadier Mayor
7.	General de Brigada	Brigadier
6.	Coronel	Comodoro
5.	Teniente Coronel	Vice Comodoro
4.	Mayor	Comandante
3.	Capitán	Capitán
2.	Teniente Primero	Primer Teniente
1.	Teniente	Teniente
	Subteniente	Alférez

El Teatro de la Zarzuela Argentina

The Argentine government has decreed the creation of an official theatre, the *Teatro de la Zarzuela Argentina*, for the performance of musical comedies and farces, operettas, and zarzuelas on native subjects. A special attempt will be made to stimulate the production of works based on themes from Argentine folklore.

The pieces performed will be the work of Argentine authors or of foreign writers who have been living in the country for over 15 years. And it is likewise decreed that ninety percent of the actors must be native Argentines or foreigners native in the Spanish language who have lived in Argentina 15 years. The theater will incorporate into its repertoire the winning works in contests it will organize, and it will serve as an experimental school for beginning composers, authors, and actors.

Although the headquarters of the theater will be in Buenos Aires, the company will be required to tour the country so that within five years' time it will have given performances in every province and territory of Argentina.

Villa-Lobos¹ in the United States

Heitor Villa-Lobos, the Brazilian composer, arrived in Los Angeles on November 17, 1944 and was invited to conduct the Janssen Symphony Orchestra of Los Angeles on November 26 when he played a full program of his own works as follows:

Symphony No. 2 (first performance in the United States)

Rudepoema (first performance in the United States)

Chôros No. 6 (first performance in the United States)

He was also made an honorary doctor of music by a university in Los Angeles.

After Villa-Lobos' arrival in New York he appeared on Columbia Broadcasting Station's regular hour, "Invitation to Music." He conducted two concerts, consisting of the following program:

January 3—

Discovery of Brazil

New York Skylines

January 10—

Amazonas (Symphonic poem—first performance in the United States)

Three Serenades—1. *April*

2. *Love Song*

3. *Song of the Cart Driver*
(soloist—Jennie Tourel)

On January 28, he was the honor guest of the League of Composers, presenting the following program at the Auditorium of the Museum of Modern Art:

Two *Chôros*

(soloists—Alexander Schneider and Benar Heifetz)

Group of piano solos

(soloist—Gene Behrend)

The Three Mariés

Two *Cirandas*

Danza do Indio Branco

Group of songs

(soloist—Olga Coelho)

Canção do Marinheiro

¹ See Villa-Lobos, by Andrade Muricy, BULLETIN, January 1945.

Lundu da Marqueza de Santos

Modinha—Serista No. 5

Serenata—Serista No. 12

Canção do Carreiro (first New York performance)

Second trio for violin, cello, and piano

(soloists—Alexander Schneider, Benar Heifetz, and Erich Itor Kahn)

On February 8 and 9, Villa-Lobos conducted the Philharmonic Symphony Orchestra of New York, playing his *Chôros* No. 8, with Raoul Spivak and Ignace Strasfogel, pianists, and *Chôros* No. 9 (first performance in the United States).

On February 12 and 13, he conducted the City Center Orchestra, playing *Uirapuru* and *Bachianas Brasileiras* No. 7 (first performance in the United States).

Dr. Koussevitsky invited him to conduct the Boston Symphony Orchestra on February 21, 23, and 24, where he played the following works:

Bachianas Brasileiras No. 7

Chôros No. 12 (first world performance)

Rudepoema

Rudepoema was repeated on March 14 in a concert which Dr. Koussevitsky himself conducted at Carnegie Hall.

Villa-Lobos also did some recordings with Columbia: *Three Songs* with Jennie Tourel—1, *April*; 2, *Love Song*; and 3, *Song of the Cart Driver*; also *Bachianas Brasileiras* No. 5 (seven cellists and soprano: Bidu Sayao).

Music critics, who paid Villa-Lobos' works close attention, were very much interested and in general favorably impressed. Some quotations from leading papers follow:

Villa-Lobos' symphonic poem, *Uirapuru*, was heard for the first time in North America. It is a highly imaginative and fascinating score, brilliantly colored. The *Uirapuru* is the bird of love, sought by a band of hunters. With the appearance of an Indian maiden he turns into a beautiful youth, but is transfixed by the arrow of an envious watcher. Slain, he becomes again a bird, whose song haunts the forest.

The program is enough for the composer to

portray Brazilian nature and its colors and sounds; to intersperse these passages with the music of savage dances, the flute-calls of the Uirapuru's enemy, and outbursts of sensuous song. There are superb pages, pages not merely photographic, or ventriloquistic, but of a genuine and highly individual impressionism. . . . It may be said of Villa-Lobos' scoring that in places one scents as well as hears the forest, sees the play of light, is aware of the tropical night and its strange enchantment.—Olin Downes, *New York Times*, Feb. 14, 1945.

The *Bachianas Brasileiras* No. 7 is less amorphous, but it is also less inventive. . . . The scoring is more expected, save for the inclusion of the marimba, and the material, though much of it comes unashamedly from popular sources, is neither folk music presented straight, nor yet transformed, but folk music beaten willy-nilly in with some Bachlike figures and poured all unmixed into the large bowl of French impressionism. . . . One feels that here is a composer who should completely forget tradition. The further afield he goes, the more likely he is to bring back discoveries of true charm and value.—Paul Bowles, *New York Herald Tribune*, Feb. 14, 1945.

In the two examples of the *Cbôros* that were played under his leadership by the Philharmonic Symphony, and in a symphonic poem and one of the *Bachianas Brasileiras* that were included in the City Symphony's program, one is impressed, first of all, by the Brazilian's conscious quest of tone color. It is of more importance than his lavish expenditure of thematic ideas, which often are not far from the popular in character. It is of much more concern to him than adherence to any classical canons of form. His ideas are, to say the least, very freely treated. There is sometimes the feeling that his compositions could be tightened, to their advantage. They risk monotony through their waste spots, with much repetition of accompaniment figures. But the color of what he writes is always interesting, even when the work is not descriptive in character.—Oscar Thompson, *Christian Science Monitor*, Feb. 14, 1945.

Bolivian Music Archives

Concerned by the fact that much of Bolivia's musical heritage, being of anonymous authorship, is unprotected by copyright laws, the Departmental Cultural Council recently organized by the Mayor of La Paz is making

plans to collect all such music and copyright it for the nation, forming the National Music Archives.

Another job undertaken by the Council will be that of acquainting other countries with Bolivian music. It is planning to select the ten best pieces of popular or folk music in the country and have them published abroad. If the composers are living, they will, of course, receive the profits of the publication; in the case of anonymous works, the royalties will go into the funds of the Council.

To stimulate artistic production, the Council will sponsor contests in various fields. Public interest will be kept up by presentation of appropriate programs. The Council planned to begin the year's public activities with a radio broadcast in which representatives of the different arts would be asked to participate.

Argentine librarians in La Paz

Called to La Paz to supervise the organization of the new Marshal Santa Cruz Library, two Argentine librarians, Dr. Raúl Cortazar and Señor Carlos Victor Penna supplemented their work with a lecture course in library science given in the auditorium of the library.

To demonstrate one of many ways of arousing interest in reading, the professors organized a book review competition, inviting contestants to submit reviews of Carlos Montenegro's *Nacionalismo y Coloniaje*, a work which received a prize from the Association of Newspapermen and was published by the Municipality of La Paz.

75th anniversary of La Nación

On January 4, 1945, *La Nación* of Buenos Aires celebrated its 75th anniversary and paid homage to its illustrious founder, Gen-

eral Bartolomé Mitre, first constitutional president of the Argentine Republic, military leader, and historian.

Through three generations, the Mitre family has continued to direct and expand the activities of *La Nación*, and each generation has seen the appearance in its pages of contributions from the literary elite of the old and the new world. José Martí, Emile Zola, Rubén Darío, Remy de Gourmont, and Miguel de Unamuno were among its contributors. The stimulus which it has given to Argentine literature is incalculable.

"One of the essential goals of those who have directed (this newspaper)," says *La Nación's* anniversary editorial, "has always been that of promoting in every way, and in every field, the culture of the country. . . . It would not be an exaggeration to say that that activity continued through three-quarters of a century and the civilizing influence it has had, have constituted a strong, fruitful element in the spiritual formation of Argentina."

Infantile paralysis hospital in Venezuela

Thanks to the initiative of a philanthropic citizen of Venezuela, a children's hospital has been constructed near Caracas for the treatment of poliomyelitis cases. Built on an ample piece of ground donated by the government, the hospital is in modern, functional style, and its up-to-date clinical facilities will make possible the most advanced treatments.

Miss Julianne Rickey has been appointed by the Rockefeller Foundation to assist with the selection of equipment and the organization of the hospital services, and Miss Matie Becker has been sent by the Pan American Sanitary Bureau to serve as orthopedic nursing consultant.

Special events at the Pan American Union

For some time the Pan American Union has been open on Sunday afternoons and has offered to the hundreds of service men and women and other visitors programs of music of the Americas or motion pictures. The following is a list of events of this nature since last October and of some other special events such as art exhibits and lectures which have taken place under the auspices of the Union:

1944

- Sunday, October 1.* Motion picture: *Our Neighbors down the Road.*
- Sunday, October 8.* Music of the Americas. Frederick H. Bloch, pianist.
- Sunday, October 15.* Motion picture: *A Tour of Colorful Mexico.*
- Sunday, October 22.* Folk and Popular Music of Venezuela. Juan Alvarado, Venezuelan tenor; Willa Semple at the piano.
- Sunday, October 29.* Motion pictures of Brazil.
- Sunday, November 5.* Latin American Music. Corporal Karl Zapf, pianist.
- Sunday, November 12.* Motion picture: *The Land of the Mayas.*
- Sunday, November 19.* Music of the Americas. Angélica Morales, Peruvian pianist; Chago Rodríguez, Cuban baritone.
- Friday, November 24.* Recital by the Chilean poets Pablo and Winett de Rokha.
- Sunday, November 26.* Motion picture: *Peru, the Land of the Incas.*
- Wednesday, November 29.* Concert of music for two pianos. Rosita Renard and Armando Palacios of Chile.
- Saturday, December 2.* Fifth Pan American Health Day Program.
- Sunday, December 3.* Music of the Americas. Jeanne Behrend, pianist.
- Thursday, December 7.* Lecture by Gustavo Palos Matos of Puerto Rico: *El Romancero Castellano y el Romance de Cofresi.*
- Sunday, December 17.* Motion picture: *Bolivia, the Highland Country.*
- Wednesday, December 20.* Forum on The Women of the Americas.
- Sunday, December 24.* Motion pictures: *South of the Border; Guadalajara.*

Sunday, December 31. Motion pictures: *The Amazon Awakens; Brazil Gets the News.*

1945

Thursday, January 4. (At National Museum)
Opening of an Exhibition of Water Colors of Latin America by Carl Folke Sahlin.

Sunday, January 7. Motion picture: *Chile Cruise.*

Sunday, January 14. Music of the Americas.
Reah Sadowski, pianist.

Sunday, January 21. Motion pictures of Venezuela.

Sunday, January 28. Motion pictures of Mexico.

Friday, February 2. (At National Museum)
Opening of an Exhibition of Works of Modern Cuban Painters.

Sunday, February 11. Music of the Americas.
Frederick H. Bloch, pianist.

Sunday, February 18. Motion picture: *Southern South America.*

Sunday, February 25. Motion picture: *Our Neighbors Down the Road.*

March 1-March 21. Showing of color prints of Mexico and Guatemala by Carlos Mérida.

Sunday, March 4. Motion picture. *Industries of Latin America.*

Thursday, March 8. Lecture in English by Dr. René Amorim: *Some Aspects of Brazilian Culture.*

Sunday, March 11. Motion picture: *A Tour of Colorful Mexico.*

Sunday, March 18. Motion picture: *Over the Andes and Down the Amazon.*

Sunday, March 25. Piano music by Eva Iaci, Argentine pianist.

March, 23-April 9. Showing of sixty-five woodcuts from Argentina.

Sunday, April 1. Motion picture: *Along the Inter-American Highway.*

Sunday, April 8. Violin music by Isaac Feldman, Brazilian violinist; Tibor Kozma at the piano.

Thursday, April 12. Opening of an exhibition of paintings of Mexico by Joseph Margulies.

We see by the papers that—

• Carpets are a new import from *Argentina* into the *United States*. Argentine soft wools have long been used by carpet manufacturers in the latter country, who blended it with coarser types from colder countries.

• Plans have been drawn for the construction of a modern hotel for tourists in Ocu, a town rich in *Panamanian* customs and traditions. The cost of the undertaking will be approximately 30,000 balboas, two-thirds of which will be contributed by the people of Ocu and the rest by the Government of Panama.

• *Aerovías Venezolanas* (AVENSA) has started a new air route which joins Maiquetía (the airport of Caracas), Valencia, Calabozo, and San Fernando de Apure. It has long been hoped that such a route would be established, since it makes possible the rapid transportation of fresh meat from San Fernando to Caracas. Special reduced freight charges have been fixed on the new route for meat, rice, flour, corn, dairy products, eggs, fresh fruits and vegetables, and cement.

• A cooperative agency to provide services and facilities for a group of *United States* manufacturers of consumer goods has opened show rooms in the principal cities of fifteen Latin American countries.

• *United States* supplies of peanut oil will be somewhat increased this year by production from imported *Argentine* peanuts.

• Doubleday, Doran and Company and the University Society of New York have formed a publishing company called Editorial Interamericana which will publish in Mexico translations of *United States* books for Latin American readers. The firm of Pocket Books has also recently entered the Latin American field.

• Under the title *Modern American Dance* fifty large panels of photographs of the most brilliant exponents of the dance in the *United States*, with explanatory text, will be circulated in Latin America by the Inter-American Office of the National Gallery of Art. The pictures were taken by Barbara Morgan.

- On January 19, 1945, *Peru* and *Panama* celebrated the centenary of the birth of Don José Antonio Miró Quesada, the Panama-born patriarch of Peruvian journalism. *El Comercio* of Lima, which Miró Quesada edited for many years, is now under the direction of his sons, Luis and Aurelio Miró Quesada.
- The Board of Directors of *Argentina's* National Institute of Social Welfare took office on December 15, 1944. The Board, under the chairmanship of Dr. Ramón J. Cárcano, a presidential appointee, includes six government directors, three worker representatives, and three employer representatives.
- With the object of safeguarding the national archaeological heritage, the *Peruvian* government has promulgated a Supreme Decree, dated January 29, 1945, regulating the excavation for commercial purposes of Inca tombs and other pre-Columbian remains.
- Daniel Carpio, *Peruvian* swimming champion, recently became the fifth athlete in 26 years to accomplish the difficult feat of swimming across the Rio de la Plata, going from the Uruguayan city of Colonia to Buenos Aires, a distance of approximately 32 miles. He set a record for the crossing of 22 hours, 52 minutes, almost an hour and a half less than the previous record set by Lilian Harrison in 1923.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE CAPITOL GARDEN, CARACAS

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1945

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its

affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments. After November 1, 1945 the members of the Board will be appointed *ad hoc* by the respective governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON





Courtesy of Ministry of Public Works

BOLÍVAR

The statue of "The Liberator," Venezuela's most famous son, stands in the center of Caracas.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 7



JULY 1945

A Glimpse of Caracas

"CARACAS THE GRACIOUS," the capital of Venezuela has justly been called. Set in a smiling valley twenty miles from the sea, it has as a background mountains of ever-changing green. Chief among them is El Ávila, beloved by all Caraqueños. One Venezuelan artist painted it so often and so affectionately that a newspaper said that he deserved a new degree: Doctor in El Ávila.

Driving some twenty miles up from La Guaira over a winding mountain road, the traveler descends slightly before he comes upon the capital. He approaches it through a section of handsome houses, each in its own garden, along tree-lined streets. Flowering vines and shrubs bright with color adorn each home.

As one comes into the center of the city, the streets shrink to colonial narrowness, for Caracas was founded in 1567, forty years before Jamestown. Many cars make the traffic congested, even along one-way streets. The Government has had the excellent idea of cutting a 100-foot avenue across the city from west to east. This will bear the name

of the Venezuelan national hero Bolívar, on the 162nd anniversary of whose birth the Third Inter-American Conference of Agriculture is convening in the Venezuelan capital this month.

Tall modernistic buildings have recently been built in this part of town to house several of the Ministries, but the Foreign Office still occupies the wide-spreading two-story Casa Amarilla across from the Cathedral on the Plaza Bolívar. In this plaza, the heart of the city, is an equestrian statue of "The Liberator" of Venezuela and of five other Latin American countries, a man renowned not only for his military glories but also for the vision with which more than a century ago he foresaw the advantages and necessity of inter-American co-operation. It was Simón Bolívar who called the first conference of American countries, which met at Panama in 1826.

Not far from the plaza is the house where Bolívar was born, now kept as a shrine by the national government. Rising one story flush with the narrow sidewalk, its sedate



Courtesy of Ministry of Public Works

SOUTH FRONT OF THE CAPITOL, CARACAS

façade with grilled windows gives no idea of the spaciousness within. Like Mount Vernon, this was a home of wealth, and the furnishings recall those of the American colonial period. The great salon across the front contains the archives of Bolívar's letters and is hung with large paintings of his heroic deeds. The house stretches back through many rooms and three patios to the garden at the rear.

Bolívar was an admirer of Washington and highly valued the locket with a miniature of the American patriot and a lock of his hair presented by the latter's family. He wore it constantly, and it is shown in his portraits. This locket is now in the Bolivarian Museum in Caracas with many other relics, the most dazzling of which is the sword with a diamond-incrusted hilt presented to the Liberator by a grateful Peru.

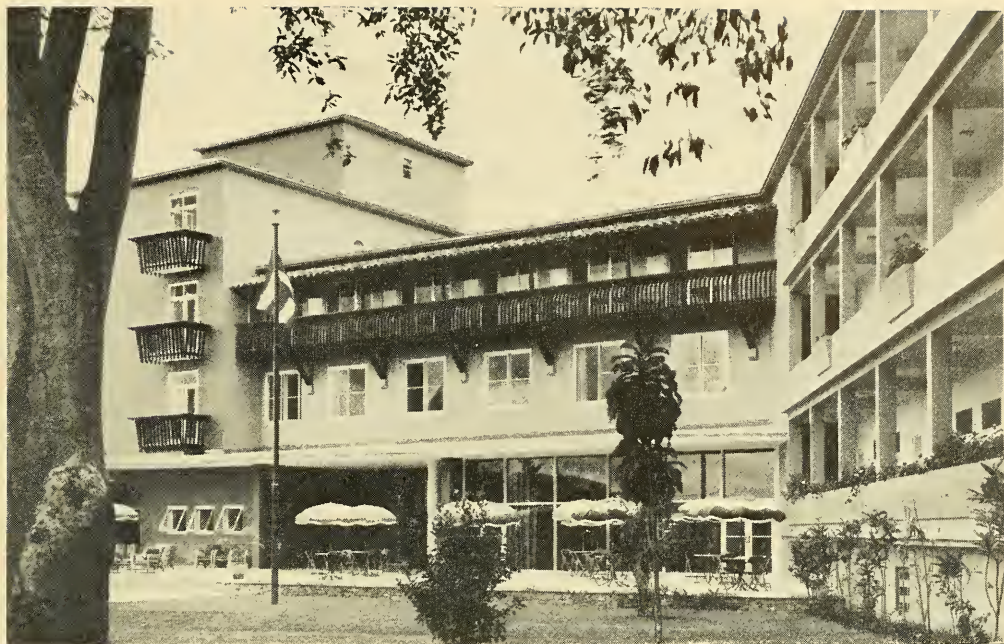
In the Pantheon, which rises at the head of a peaceful little square, Bolívar's remains lie under a noble statue, flanked by monu-

ments to Miranda and Sucre, two other great Venezuelan heroes of independence.

Although Venezuela reveres its heroes and cherishes their memory, it does not live in the past, but is a progressive country that is making great forward strides. Having drawn in its oil wells "a prize in the lottery of nature," as one writer has said, it has set its revenues to work to improve the lot of its people in many ways.

The modernization sponsored by the Government of President Medina Angarita has been of inestimable value in the transformation of Caracas. In spite of present-day difficulties of obtaining certain types of materials, much has been accomplished in carrying out the Government's social policies.

One project that may be considered the nucleus of the city's transformation is the reclamation of "El Silencio." This was a district that was both a physical and moral eyesore, filled with mean little houses where misery and corruption had flourished for



Courtesy of Grace Line

HOTEL ÁVILA

This luxurious new hotel will doubtless be popular with Americans when travel again becomes easy, since Caracas has a delightful climate, thanks to its altitude of 2600 feet.



Courtesy of Grace Line

THE COUNTRY CLUB, CARACAS

The Caraqueños love the "always green and shadowed mountain ranges" that encircle their city.



BOLÍVAR'S BIRTHPLACE

The house where Bolívar was born is a national shrine in Caracas. The admiration felt for the Venezuelan general and statesman has been manifested in many ways and in many nations; it will be recalled that the lieutenant general commanding the Tenth Army on Okinawa was Simon Bolívar Buckner, Jr.



MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, CARACAS

The government maintains an excellent school of fine arts as well as a museum where the works of Venezuelan artists can be admired.



Courtesy of Vladimír Kubes

INSTITUTE OF VETERINARY RESEARCH

One of the important scientific centers under the Venezuelan Ministry of Agriculture.



THE NATIONAL TEACHERS COLLEGE, CARACAS

Education is flourishing under the present administration, and the capital will soon have a campus and modern buildings for the national university.

Courtesy of Charles C. Griffin



HENRY CLAY

The statue of this American statesman in Caracas recalls that he was the outstanding champion of the recognition by the United States of the newly independent Latin American countries.

years. These were razed. "El Silencio" has been rebuilt and now consists of a group of modern buildings with all conveniences. Seven buildings of four to eight stories com-

prise the project. The plans called for 1,000 apartments of two, three, or four rooms each and 410 stores. Block No. 1 consists of an eight-story building with a frontage of 1,300 feet. It contains more than 500 family apartments and 200 business premises, and is said to be the largest single housing edifice in South America.

The entire project covers an area of almost 25 acres, of which 32 percent will be used for the buildings, 25 percent for streets, and the remaining 43 percent for open ground. These open spaces are being made into parks, a general sports field, and a plaza, the largest in the capital, situated in front of Block No. 1.

All the buildings are made of reinforced concrete. In accordance with the climate and customs of Caracas, many features of colonial architecture have been adopted. Interior arrangements, however, follow the most modern lines.

The valuation of the land and the razed properties is about \$3,000,000 and the construction cost of the seven buildings some \$9,000,000. The project is being carried on through the Workers Bank, an official organization. The financing was made possible through an increase in the Bank's capital consisting, in addition to the Bank's ordinary resources, of a \$6,000,000 credit granted by the Export-Import Bank of Washington.

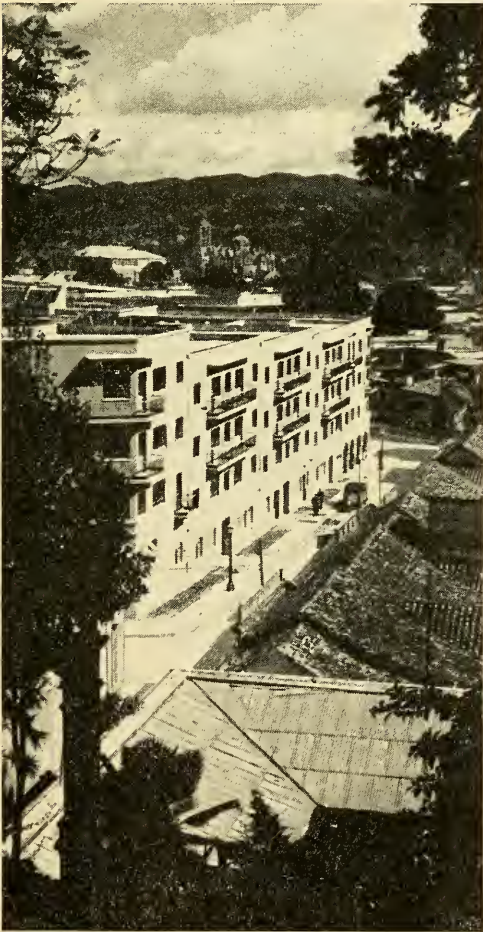
In addition to all this construction work, a University City is also rising in Caracas, decreed by the Government of President Medina Angarita. This center will contain the University's administration buildings and various other groups for Medical Sciences and other faculties, provide dormitories, and offer facilities for sports.

The Medical Sciences group will include the Hospital and Clinic; the Institutes of Anatomy, Medicine and Experimental Surgery, Pathological Anatomy, Hygiene, and

El Silencio Housing Project

One of the progressive undertakings of the Venezuelan government is the large housing project in Caracas which has replaced a tumble-down section known as El Silencio. Seven large buildings, from four to eight stories in height, will contain 1,000 apartments and 410 stores. They are set on a monumental square, the largest in the city. The general plan includes gardens between the buildings and an athletic field for the use of all the residents. The buildings and land cost about \$12,000,000.

Courtesy of M. A. Falcón Briceño



TREES AND A PLEASANT VIEW ADD TO THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE NEW APARTMENTS



ALL THE UNITS ARE OF REINFORCED CONCRETE

AN ARCADE IN THE COLONIAL STYLE MAKES A SHADED PASSAGE ALONG THE SHOPS





FEDERAL DISTRICT BUILDING, CARACAS

The modern style of architecture prevails in new government buildings.

Cancer; the Isolation Hospital; and the Schools of Dentistry, Pharmacy, and Nursing. The Administration group includes the Rector's Office, the Library, and the Auditorium. The final group of buildings, located in the center of the University City, will contain the School of Chemistry and Physics and the School of Engineering.

Some of these buildings, such as the National Institute of Hygiene and the Institutes of Anatomy, Pathological Anatomy, and Medicine, are already under construction.

Other new buildings recently completed in Caracas include the Teachers College, with a practice school for 1,000 pupils. Now in the last stages of construction is the Andrés Bello Secondary School, and another school of this level is nearly completed.

In addition to governmental action in the construction field, which is contributing so

much to the modernization of Caracas, mention should also be made of private efforts along the same lines. The present wave of building in Caracas is unprecedented. Almost daily old houses are being torn down and modern buildings going up in their stead. The center of the city today is unrecognizable even for those who saw it only two or three years ago. They will remember fondly, however, the one-story houses washed in light colors and crowned with ornamental cornices of varied design, like fancy icing on a cake, as some one has said. And those who have been privileged to pass through the doors of these houses—or of any other Venezuelan home—will never forget the welcome within from those cultured and delightful people whose tradition has made their city truly "Caracas the gracious."

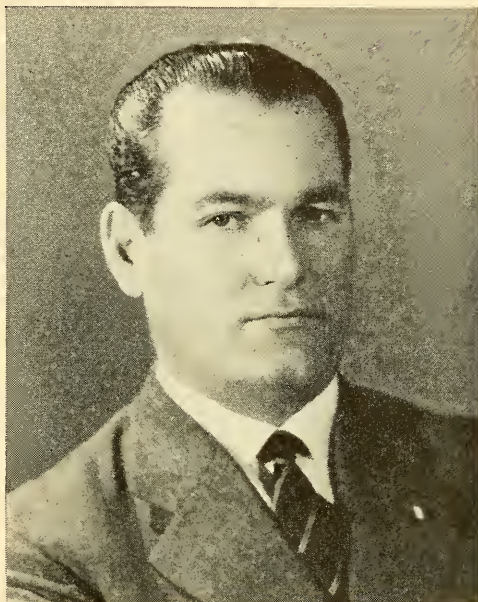
Guatemala's New President

Dr. Juan José Arévalo Bermejo

SALUTING the day with joyous vivas from a huge crowd that had filled the Plaza de Armas for five hours, Guatemala entered upon a new chapter in the nation's history at noon on March 15, 1945. A civilian, a school-teacher, a man more familiar with university libraries and village classrooms than with barracks and palaces, was invested with the broad silk presidential band of blue and white as he swore that he would loyally uphold Guatemala's new democratic constitution.

Standing with President Arévalo before the solemn inaugural session of Congress were the three men who had been governing Guatemala since the remnants of dictatorship were overthrown in October 1944. These three men, the members of the Revolutionary Junta, delivered to the new president the administration of the country. In five short months they had arranged for the calling of a constituent assembly, for the framing and adoption of a constitution, and for the constitutional election of a chief executive in sympathy with the aspirations of the October revolution and of the population of the country; now they were fulfilling their pledged word by passing on their power to a legally elected president.

Dr. Juan José Arévalo, first president of Guatemala under the liberal constitution of 1945, was born in Taxisco in the department of Santa Rosa, Guatemala, September 10, 1904, son of Mariano Arévalo and Elena Bermejo de Arévalo. His school days were spent in the capital city until the earthquake of 1917 obliged him to move to a secondary school in Chiquimula. He soon returned to Guatemala City, and was graduated in 1922



from the Central Normal School for Boys. Then came a year at law school, and then a definite decision that teaching was to be his career.

After some practical experience in primary and secondary schools, the young teacher was made head of the technical section of the Ministry of Public Education. He continued to fill this post, and to act as inspector of schools in the departments of Escuintla and Jalapa, until he left to make a journey to Europe. In 1926 and 1927 he visited Holland, Belgium, France, and Spain; in Paris he published his first pedagogical work, a teachers' handbook dedicated to the primary schools of Guatemala. Since that first book his publications, which have appeared in various American capitals, have included the following: *La filosofía de los*

valores en la pedagogía; El quetzal; La pedagogía de la personalidad; El placer de viajar; La adolescencia como evasión y retorno, and numerous papers on literary, educational and philosophical subjects.

The next year the future president won first place in a competition arranged by the administration of Gen. Lázaro Chacón. The scholarship grant thus obtained enabled him to go to Argentina to continue his pedagogical studies. At the University of La Plata he took a six-year course in the school of education, and received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and Educational Science.

In 1934 Dr. Arévalo came back to Guatemala with his degree and with Señora Elisa Martínez de Arévalo, the young Argentine teacher of Spanish parentage whom he had married during his studies at the university. He continued his educational work, and published during this period an elementary geography of Guatemala carefully designed to suit the needs of the children for whose use it was intended; there were simple maps arranged in series to bring out clearly one point at a time, there was an easy demonstration of the map distortion caused by Mercator's projection, and there were helpful suggestions to make the book usable even in schools without professionally trained teachers and without such ordinary tools as blackboards and colored crayons.

Those were troubled times in Guatemala. The ambitious young teacher found himself

thwarted at many points, and in 1936 he was glad to go to Argentina to accept the chair of literature in the newly organized School of Philosophy and Letters at the University of Tucumán. He became secretary of the School of Education in the University of La Plata, the school where he had taken his doctorate; he conducted a seminary in contemporary pedagogy at the University of Buenos Aires; he was appointed inspector general of educational establishments at the University of Mendoza.

The Mendoza post he soon lost, as a result of the new regime that followed the elevation of Gen. Ramírez to the presidency. However, he was invited to return to the University of Tucumán, and he was there when in the summer of 1944, as a result of the July revolution in Guatemala, he was invited by various groups of his countrymen to come to Guatemala and be a candidate for the presidency.

In the elections of December 1944 Dr. Arévalo was supported by two parties, the *Frente Popular Libertadora* and the *Renovación Nacional*. He was elected by a large majority. At his inauguration he promised the newly elected Congress, "the first Congress of Guatemala to enjoy full autonomy in its functions," that with its help he would build in Guatemala a "democracy of the postwar period," a "functional democracy" which should permeate "the social order, the economic order, the educational order."



The Department of Agriculture and Latin America in Cooperative Agricultural Programs

IN the general program of the United States Government aimed at the development and maintenance of the closest possible friendly relations with the other republics of the Western Hemisphere, the Department of Agriculture is cooperating by: (1) Providing technical experts and facilities for the development of cooperative research on problems of mutual interest; (2) providing inter-training programs for agricultural specialists from the other American republics and assisting other agencies, United States government as well as private, in planning related programs; (3) providing technical experts and superior planting stock for the purpose of expanding the production of natural rubber in the Western Hemisphere; and (4) encouraging the production of other strategic commodities, such as insecticides, cinchona and other drug plants, and essential oils, which must be imported into the United States.

The Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, through its Technical Collaborations Branch, coordinates these various projects and activities and cooperates with other agencies engaged in similar work. In that connection it participates with the governments of the countries concerned in the joint operation of cooperative agricultural experiment stations in Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Peru, and collaborative research projects in existing institutions

in Brazil, Colombia, and Cuba. In addition it integrates and coordinates: (1) The various inter-training programs of the Department for Latin American trainees; (2) the natural rubber program of the Bureau of Plant Industry, Soils, and Agricultural Engineering; and (3) the various projects financed by Department of State allotments.

Long-term agreements

The cooperative experiment stations and projects operate under long-term agreements between the governments of the United States and of the republics concerned. Under these agreements the other cooperating governments are supplying land, buildings, associate scientists, clerical assistance, laborers, etc., and the major part of the personnel and funds necessary for their operation. The United States supplies a limited number of technicians, technical and scientific equipment not available in the cooperating country, and technical and scientific books and periodicals published in the United States.

On July 15, 1944, an agreement was signed with the Government of Guatemala for the establishment of a cooperative agricultural experiment station, primarily for research on cinchona (quinine). At the Tingo María station in Peru numerous projects are under way, including research in cinchona diseases, experimentation in methods of propagating and planting derris and *Lonchocarpus* (important sources of rotenone), comparative studies and selection of

This statement is based on the last report of the Secretary of Agriculture of the United States.

high-yielding plants, establishment of cinchona and rubber nurseries, and demonstration planting of rubber.

At the Pichilingue experiment station in Ecuador, several hundred thousand rubber seedlings will soon be ready for distribution to growers. Large plantings of derris for the production of insecticides already have been made in cooperation with the Ecuadorean Development Corporation. Soil surveys are being conducted to determine the best areas for nursery and commercial planting of various tropical crops complementary to the agricultural production of the United States. Nurseries have been established in the highlands for production of high-yielding pyrethrum plants for subsequent distribution to producers of that important

insecticide. Research work on cacao also has been initiated at Pichilingue.

Three agricultural technicians have been loaned to the Government of Colombia to assist that country in coordinating its agricultural research program and completing plans for the increased production of complementary tropical crops. New projects have been initiated at the El Salvador station to determine the possibilities of the yam bean as a source of rotenone and to investigate diseases attacking henequen. In Cuba several cooperative agricultural engineering projects are in operation. These are concerned mainly with the problem of planting, cultivating, harvesting, and processing kenaf (roselle), an important jute substitute.

At the recently established El Recreo cooperative experiment station in eastern Nicaragua some buildings have already been completed by the Nicaraguan Government and others will be completed within the coming year. Early in 1945 that station will have several hundred thousand high-yielding rubber plants for distribution to growers. Work previously inaugurated on rotenone-producing plants, medicinals, essential oils, vanilla, and other tropical crops is being continued.

Cooperative research expanded

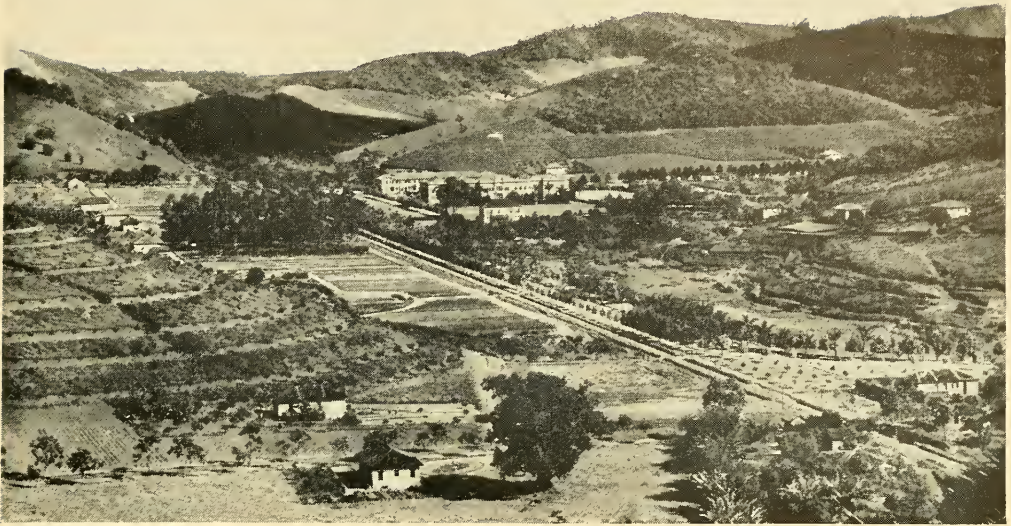
During the past year Foreign Agricultural Relations completed a survey of various derris plantings in Latin America and established a basic nursery of high-yielding plants at the Summit Gardens in the Canal Zone. In addition it completed an extensive survey of the Lonchocarpus-producing area in Peru, as a result of which selections and nursery plantings of that important rotenone-producing plant were made. The Office now is establishing projects in the cooperative stations for the study and control of leaf-cutting ants and other insect pests harmful to complementary crops.



U. S. D. A.

HARVESTING KENAF (ROSELLE)

The United States and Cuba are cooperating in the problem of growing and processing kenaf, an important jute substitute.



U. S. D. A.

AN AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION AND COLLEGE IN BRAZIL

Cooperative research projects in agriculture are being carried on by Brazil and the United States.

Under its rubber program, the Department provides technical leadership and training through assignment of United States technicians to plan and guide the establishment of nurseries, develop proper planting and propagating practices, select high-yielding and disease-resistant plant material, and distribute basic planting stock. Blight-resistant stock is now being propagated for distribution in 1945 and 1946 for top grafting on high-yielding stock. Cooperative rubber nurseries and projects now are in operation in Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Haiti, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Peru, Colombia, Ecuador, and Brazil. The extent of the cooperation by the various governments and local growers in the rubber program has exceeded expectations.

Thirty-one fellowships were awarded Latin American trainees under the inter-training program of the Department in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1944: eight in

extension, 11 in soil conservation, and 12 in agricultural economics. In 1944-45, six fellowships will be awarded in the various fields covered by the Agricultural Research Administration. This training program is an important factor in increasing the competence of agricultural technicians in the other American republics.

At the request and expense of the Chilean Government, a commission of United States technicians recently completed a study of the forest resources of that country and made recommendations for the development, improved management and better utilization of the forest resources of Chile for domestic consumption. Through the Agricultural Experiment Station of the Department at Mayagüez, P. R., several million derris cuttings have been distributed to growers and experiment stations in Latin America.

Department entomologists assigned to the

field station in Uruguay are seeking natural parasitic enemies of the white-fringed beetle, the sugar-cane borer, the cotton boll weevil, the pink bollworm, and the vegetable weevil for use in the United States. In Mexico the regular quarantine work continues. Co-operative work with the Mexican Government is strengthening and coordinating the suppression of the pink bollworm of cotton. A cooperative project has been completed for releasing parasites for the biological control of the citrus blackfly on the west coast of Mexico.

Interchange of educational facilities

Handbooks on soil conservation and dairying in Latin America and pamphlets on miscellaneous agricultural subjects have been prepared for translation into Spanish and Portuguese. Information on conservation and other agricultural programs in the United States has been furnished to other American republics through publications, correspondence, motion pictures, and photographs; and several countries, particularly Mexico and Brazil, have reciprocated.



U. S. D. A.

A FIELD OF HENEQUEN, EL SALVADOR

Henequen yields a fiber that is in great demand.

Increasing the Food Supply of the Western Hemisphere

A Cooperative Program

WILLIAM C. BRISTER

Director, Food Supply Division, Institute of Inter-American Affairs

"The United Nations, which have fought so successfully together against the Axis in this war, must join together in the years after victory in waging war with equal vigor and unity against hunger, poverty, ignorance and disease." EDWARD R. STETTINIUS, JR., Secretary of State of the United States, Mexico City, February 22, 1945.

A SUCCESSFUL START in the war against hunger, one of the evils which the United Nations must battle throughout the world long after military victories have been concluded, has already been made here in the Western Hemisphere. Through agreements between government agencies of the United States and of Brazil, Costa Rica, Haiti, Honduras, Panama, Peru, Paraguay and Venezuela, cooperative programs have been under way since 1942 to increase the production of food and improve nutrition.

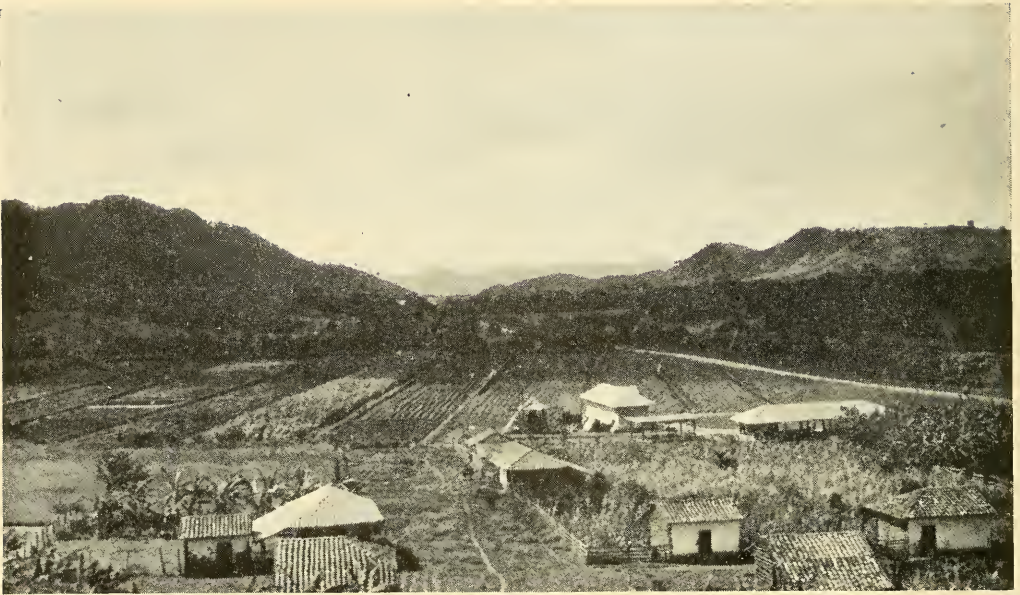
In many of the countries of this hemisphere not enough food of high nutritive value is grown even for local consumption and dietary conditions are poor, although the majority of the inhabitants are engaged in or directly dependent upon agriculture for a living. As a result those nations which relied heavily upon imports for their supplementary food supply suffered greatly. When war came four years ago, shipping restrictions cut these imports at the same time that concentration of workers in rubber, mining and other areas yielding products of strategic importance to the United Nations raised special food problems. By 1942

these factors had created an emergency situation.

In June 1942, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs (now the Office of Inter-American Affairs, or OIAA), an agency of the United States Government, undertook a program designed to help in this critical problem of increasing food supplies. This program was planned and developed with the cooperation of the United States Department of State and the Department of Agriculture. The Food Supply Division was established within the Institute of Inter-American Affairs, a government corporation under the OIAA, and charged with the responsibility of carrying out this program in cooperation with the other American governments concerned, which had either requested such assistance or were willing to cooperate because of the strategic factors involved.

Basic objectives

The Food Supply Program has four basic objectives: *first*, to alleviate food shortages in areas of strategic importance in the war effort; *second*, to increase local production



O. I. A. A.

A DEMONSTRATION AND EXPERIMENTAL FARM IN HONDURAS

This model farm at Danlí is operated by the Food Mission.

of foodstuffs to meet the requirements of armed forces at military and naval bases throughout the Hemisphere; *third*, to aid the various governments in a long-range development of the food production resources of their countries so that chronic problems of undersupply and underconsumption can be solved; and *finally*, to provide training in modern agricultural practices and in home economics for individuals in these countries who can later carry on the program of food production after the Institute's assistance has ended.

During the three years since the Food Supply Program was first organized, about \$8,500,000 has been authorized by the Institute for the carrying out of these objectives. Local governments have contributed over \$1,500,000 in cash and in addition have made very substantial contributions in personnel, property, equipment and materials.

Agreements between governments

Working arrangements for attaining these objectives are included in basic agreements drawn up between the United States and the other governments concerned. These agreements outline the fields in which the co-operative program will be developed, the types of technical aid, and the sources and extent of financing to be contributed by each of the two governments. It is stated that the program will consist of separate projects, each of which must be agreed upon in writing by a designated official of the host government and the chief of the Food Supply Field Party. In these project agreements is contained an exact description of the work to be done, why it is needed, and how it is to be financed and supervised. The work chosen for projects depends on local circumstances, and differs somewhat from country to country.

Field parties

The basic agreement also describes the manner in which a group of technical specialists, usually from the United States, will cooperate for a stated length of time with certain agencies of the other government. In some cases, a field party of technicians is sent which works as an advisory group in the host country. In other cases, the members of the food mission are also members of a *Servicio*, a branch of the local government set up to aid in carrying out the cooperative agreement with the United States.

In Venezuela, this organization is known as the Servicio Cooperativo Interamericano de Producción de Alimentos, or SCIPA. It is set up under the Venezuelan Technical Institute of Immigration and Colonization, and operates under the joint supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and the Chief of the Institute's Food Mission. The Servicio

in Peru carries the same name as that in Venezuela, and functions as a separate entity in the Ministry of Agriculture. Here the Food Supply Chief of Party has been appointed by the Government of Peru as Director of the Servicio.

The United States Food Supply technicians in Paraguay serve as members of STICA, the Servicio Técnico Interamericano de Cooperación Agrícola, organized as an agricultural service within the Paraguayan Ministry of Agriculture. The Chief of the United States Field Party is also Director of STICA.

In Brazil, the organization is known as CBA, the Comissão Brasileiro-Americana de Produção de Gêneros Alimentícios (the Brazilian-American Food Production Commission). It is headed by the Director of the Division for the Development of Vegetable Production of the Ministry of Agricul-



O. I. A. A.

AN AMERICAN THRESHER IN OPERATION NEAR TRUJILLO, PERU

Bringing modern agricultural machinery to farmers is part of the program of SCIPA, the Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service in Peru.

ture, who serves as Chairman of the Commission, and the Chief of the Institute's Food Supply Party.

The typical United States Food Supply field party for a small country consists of a chief of party chosen for administrative ability and broad agricultural experience, an administrative officer, and a minimum of three technicians, one of whom is generally a specialist on soils, one an agricultural engineer, and the other an agronomist, livestock specialist, or agricultural extension specialist. The chief of party is responsible for over-all policy related to the program, and for liaison with officials of the host government, the Washington office, and the local United States Embassy. In larger countries, where more territory is to be covered by the program, the basic field party is expanded to include other specialists, such as agricultural economists, plant patholo-

gists, home demonstration agents, and food storage specialists.

How the program works

After the basic agreement for cooperation has been signed, operations begin with a rapid survey of the general agricultural condition of the country concerned, and preliminary discussion of possible projects. When project agreements for those of greatest urgency are drawn up, funds are allotted. Then technicians are assigned to carry out these projects in such a way as to provide the greatest opportunity possible for local workers to learn as the program progresses. As the projects get under way, the program may not develop on a country-wide basis; instead, it may be limited to one or more areas where agricultural problems are acute. But in each country, the purpose of the program is to encourage the development of agriculture so that the production, storage, and distribution of foods needed to improve the nutrition of the people will be extended or improved.

In general, the projects undertaken by the Food Supply Division provide a vehicle for giving technical assistance and for *teaching by doing* in a variety of fields, such as the following:

1. *Land Use.* Improved methods for clearing and preparing land are demonstrated; works for combating floods and soil erosion and for irrigation and drainage systems are introduced as examples of better land use. Crop diversification and rotation are stimulated, and the production of improved seeds is encouraged.

Illustrative of this work are the special vegetable production contracts with farmers entered into by SCIPA, the Servicio in Peru. As a result of these contracts, acres of vegetables were raised in areas in the north of Peru where such crops had never before been produced. Southwest of Iquitos, 132



O. I. A. A.

A MODEL DAIRY IN PARAGUAY

Part of the pasteurization plant at the Food Mission's model dairy.



O. I. A. A.

HOG PRODUCTION IN BRAZIL

Hogs raised in the Food Mission pork projects in Brazil are eventually served up to United States and Brazilian military personnel and nearby civilians.

acres of jungle land had been cleared by last January, and the land planted to food crops.

In Haiti land-use projects are of the utmost importance. Here two and one-half million of the nation's three million people live on small farms, many of which are not good agricultural land because sufficient water is lacking. Under the direction of United States and Haitian engineers, construction is now under way on five irrigation-drainage systems affecting over 26,000 acres of land. More than 800 Haitian employees are now at work on these systems, repairing old French Colonial canals, building dikes for rice irrigation, and digging drainage ditches. Improved methods of land preparation are shown on small demonstration farms where farmers are taught to handle oxen with plows.

2. *Livestock and Pasture Management.*

New or better methods of feeding and caring for livestock and improving pasture lands are demonstrated.

At Barrerito, a 30,000-acre ranch in Paraguay grazed by 5,000 head of criollo cattle, STICA is raising grade and mestizo bulls to improve the herds of small ranchers. Cattle-men interested in pasture rotation and range management are welcome to spend a week at the guest house which STICA has just built on the ranch in anticipation of their visits. Several estancia owners have requested permission to send their sons to Barrerito to study the art of producing more beef on fewer acres in less time.

In Peru a quarantine station for imported livestock, one of several planned by SCIPA's Peruvian and United States technicians, has recently been completed at Callao. It provides stable space for approximately 400



O. I. A. A.

HAITIAN RECIPIENTS OF SEEDS AND TOOLS

In Haiti nearly 1,700,000 pounds of seeds and almost 18,000 tools have been distributed to small farmers by agents of the cooperative food program.

head of cattle, as well as room for other livestock, and has been called by Peruvian newspapers the beginning of a permanent and orderly program of livestock sanitation for Peru.

The cattle tick has always constituted a menace to successful livestock and milk production in Venezuela. A year ago SCIPA and the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry cooperated in setting up a controlled zone cattle-dipping project in the Maracay region of Aragua State, where inadequate parasite control has limited production in this potentially rich dairy and livestock area. Five new dipping vats have been built, several old ones have been repaired, and a decree of the Ministry has made dipping mandatory. Before this program started, about 1,000 cattle a month were dipped in this region. Now over 31,000 animals are being dipped each

month, and the cattle tick menace is declining, although ticks cannot be entirely controlled until systematic dipping programs are universally applied.

3. *Furnishing of technical materials.* Assistance is given in making available to local producers seed, fertilizer, insecticides, live-stock and feed, tools and equipment.

Surveys conducted in Panama by the Food Supply field party when it arrived in 1943 showed that lack of insecticides and fungicides was among the important factors responsible for low yields and poor quality produce. To combat this condition, it sold chemicals at low cost through its warehouses to farmers or to the Ministry of Agriculture, which distributed them through its own agencies. Figures recently completed by the Food Mission and the Panamanian Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce show that 18,000 pounds of insecticides and fungicides and about 1,000 gallons of cattle-tick dip were used by Panamanian farmers during 1944. These are small amounts, but they reflect an increased use of these chemicals by small farmers, which is progress, leading to greater production.

Registered cattle and chickens of various breeds have been imported from the United States into Peru, and fine quality hatching eggs have been successfully flown for the first time from the United States to both Brazil and Peru. Incubators and plows, tractors and fishing equipment have been made available by cooperative food parties to farmers and fishermen of the various countries. In Haiti alone 1,690,000 pounds of seeds and 50,000 fruit trees have been distributed under the cooperative food program since operations began in August 1944; and 17,900 agricultural tools and implements have been sold at cost.

4. *Food storage and distribution.* Assistance is given in constructing adequate food

storage and refrigeration facilities, and in improving food distribution and marketing systems.

Experiments in the construction of simple grain storage bins capable of being made from local materials by small farmers are under way in Honduras and Venezuela, and modern refrigerated warehouses for storage of meats, fruits, and vegetables are already built or under construction in Brazil, Paraguay, Venezuela, and Peru.

In Brazil, CBA purchased, assembled, and distributed 1,200 steel seed storage units varying in size from 8 to 10 tons. Modeled on the tin and glass airtight containers built by small farmers for years, these steel units protect larger amounts of seeds from insects and moisture without harming their vitality.

The Food Mission's program for shipment of surplus fruits and vegetables from Costa Rica to the armed forces in the Canal Zone has been a successful experiment in widening the distribution of produce. Increased production was brought through individual contracts with growers who were guaranteed a minimum price below the market average. Produce was then bought only when a surplus existed and farmers had disposed of as much as possible at market prices. By May 1943, approximately 7,800,000 pounds of produce had been shipped from Costa Rica to the Canal Zone, a worthwhile contribution toward alleviation of the critical, war-caused food supply situation there. In addition, over 3,000,000 pounds of fruits and vegetables have been distributed to the companies constructing the Pan American highway in Costa Rica.

Perhaps the greatest influence on the agriculture of Panama achieved by Panamanian and United States workers in the cooperative food program has been in marketing standards. The improvement in quality and appearance of produce and the wider distribution possible as a result of grading

produce and securing standard packing crates for farmers at reasonable prices has resulted in the sale of produce in quantities in places throughout the country where none had been sold before.

5. *Training and education. Qualified personnel to carry on future agricultural improvement activities are trained locally and the United States Agricultural Extension, farm credit, and education programs, including home demonstration services, are started or strengthened.*

"Learning by doing" is the aim of hundreds of young Brazilians enrolled in CBA's vocational training program. Practical courses in general farming, poultry raising, mechanized agriculture, and nutrition have been established on demonstration farms in Brazil, and about 50 outstanding trainees have been sent to the United States for additional study in practical agriculture and teaching problems.

In Peru training in new agricultural



O. I. A. A.

AN EXPERIMENTAL CORN-DRIER, VENEZUELA

The problem of drying corn for storage is widespread.

methods is carried on by SCIPA's rural representatives who are located at field offices in 13 key production centers throughout the country. Each office is headed by a qualified young Peruvian agricultural engineer who directs promotion of all SCIPA's projects in his area. His agents lend technical assistance to farmers by means of lectures and practical demonstrations, assist them in securing needed equipment, and explain SCIPA's aims.

The Minister of Agriculture of Peru has said that the activities of these rural representatives now influence the production of hundreds of thousands of acres of Peru's farms.

Last year STICA in Paraguay trained 30 supervisors to run the new supervised credit agency recently created by the Paraguayan government to extend farm loans. Not only do these supervisors aid the farmer with

technical agricultural problems, but they also help his wife to improve their home. Two community work centers have been opened near villages south of Asunción where cooking and sewing lessons are provided for all women interested.

In Venezuela, SCIPA's home demonstration program is designed to give women in rural areas practical help in child care, in the making of clothing, in home cleanliness and sanitation, and in the proper selection and scientific preparation of food to assure balanced meals.

All these and many other projects are now under way in this Hemisphere—carried on by men and women of many nations, speaking different languages, but working together on a problem of mutual concern—the problem of bringing about freedom from want for all of us.

Brazil's Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs in Washington

ON March 12, 1945, a special session of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union was held to welcome a distinguished visitor, His Excellency Senhor Pedro Leão Velloso, Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil. Just prior to his visit to Washington as guest of honor of the United States Government, Senhor Leão Velloso had headed his country's delegation to the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace at Mexico City, and in due time following his Washington visit he again came to the United States as chief of Brazil's

delegation to the United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco.

At the Governing Board meeting the special guest was officially welcomed by Dr. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela, who, speaking on behalf of all his colleagues, warmly congratulated Senhor Leão Velloso on the constructive services he had rendered to the Americas at the Mexico City Conference.

In reply to Dr. Escalante's remarks, Senhor Leão Velloso said:

It is for me a source of satisfaction and pride to be received in this edifice, the home of so many notable traditions. All the American nations, which have for centuries been engaged in building a new civilization in our hemisphere, are sheltered under its roof, as they assemble in family council.

Even at the time of the earliest efforts to achieve independence, when the liberating armies were still in the field, the idea of a union of continental countries was launched with the purpose of constituting a political system designed to maintain peace among them and to assure their full development.

The words of Henry Clay in 1810 seemed inspired by a prophetic sense, when he proclaimed that regardless of the forms of government implanted in this hemisphere, America would be "animated by an American feeling and guided by an American policy."

Brazil showed itself receptive to these ideas even before its emancipation, when we tried to cut the ties that bound us to the Portuguese court in the unsuccessful movement of 1789 for which Jefferson's support was sought in Paris.

When Monroe's message appeared later, shortly after Brazil had become independent, its strengthened the feeling of Brazilian statesmen that there was a need, in accordance with the principles set forth in that historic document, of an offensive and defensive alliance to be open to the adherence of all other nations of the continent, with the purpose of "preserving and promoting the liberty of the American powers."

If I recall these facts, which belong to the history of the evolution of Pan Americanism, it is to remind you that together we began a long journey when we resolved to defend unitedly the independence of our countries, then threatened by plans, ostensibly for recolonization, made by the Holy Alliance. Even at that time, therefore, we put the question of our collective defense, which we have managed to achieve only in the present war, on the ground of equality of sovereignty, an equality based "only on the general principle of the community of nations."

In all these 120 years the orientation of the international policy of Brazil has not changed fundamentally, for it has been guided on the one hand by its unchanging and increasingly strong friendship with the United States, and on the other hand by unswerving belief that, in peace and war, we form one body of American nations.

Inspired by this thought, we witnessed in 1890,

in this marvelous city of Washington, at the First International Conference of American States, the establishment of the Pan American Union, whose duties were to collect and publish information concerning the commerce, products, laws, and tariffs of our respective countries.

From these original limited powers the Pan American Union, inspired by an unfailing idealism, grew and intensified its activities until it was transformed into the powerful organization that guides our republics. In all the Union's meetings the importance of coordinating common efforts, in order to bring about an intimate interchange of thought and a perfect understanding, has loomed large.

As a consequence of the prestige the Union had won, its structure was changed and its field enlarged in 1901, at Mexico City, and it was in that same city, by a happy coincidence, that, forty-four years later, it was finally transformed into a true Parliament of the American nations.

The resolution for this purpose that we have recently approved marks the end of one period and the beginning of a new one, in which the Pan American Union will undertake truly political functions. Endowed with the necessary autonomy and with new powers, it will be enabled to develop, in keeping with the tremendous changes that are taking place in the world, the splendid work begun so many years ago. From now on it will be not simply a center for research, information, and consultation, but an agency for deliberation and action, and therefore more than ever a center in which continental policy will perforce converge and from which it will radiate.

Let us not forget, however, that the world is small. Thus we in the Americas could hardly be an isolated group of selfish nations, indifferent to the anxieties of the rest of the world. Our experience in the present war has been decisive. So strong are blood and cultural ties, so powerful are economic interests, and so markedly do social movements in Europe react upon us, that within thirty years we have twice crossed the seas in order to fight on European battlefields for the standards, principles, and ideals that are inseparable from our civilization.

In his inaugural session at the Third International Conference of American States, at Rio de Janeiro, Rio Branco stressed the true meaning of our system, proclaiming the impossibility of isolation and declaring: "To the European countries, to which we have always been, and shall ever be, linked by spiritual ties and numerous economic

interests, we still offer the same guarantee that, as in the past, our unceasing love of order and progress have tendered."

Time and history have but shown how true those words were, and have stressed the sincerity of those intentions. At the Mexico City Conference, where momentous decisions were taken to strengthen the union between our countries, what we had in view was to equip them better to fulfill the mission that will be incumbent upon them in the organization of peace and in the reestablishment of the disrupted balance of the world.

It is with this in mind, and desiring to give our frank and loyal cooperation, that we shall soon

attend the San Francisco Conference.

These and these only, have been the ideals of Pan Americanism, championed throughout the years in this building and from here radiated to all the Continent. And you, Dr. Rowe, who have devoted a lifetime to these ideals, employing head and heart in spreading them and in instilling them in the minds of all Americans, now after this long and arduous way, reap a just reward, the well deserved prize for your devotion, toil, and sacrifice. A man of faith, you never hesitated. Held in your strong hands, the flags of the twenty-one American nations, fraternally united, will continue to wave on high.



LUNCHEON OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION IN HONOR OF THE ACTING MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF BRAZIL

The Story of Transportation in the Colombian Andes

HAROLD LEE COLVOCORESSES

IN the autumn of 1944 a bomber carrying an American diplomat and his staff glided into Techo Airport outside of Bogotá. In eight hours they had flown direct from Miami. Regular flights, with a stop-over in Barranquilla, had always required a day and a half. The new record drove a deeper wedge into the isolation of what had once been one of the world's remotest capitals.

Colombia is a land of jungles, high, wind-swept plateaus, fertile valleys, and jagged, snow-capped mountains which rise to 20,000 feet. Transportation has always been a major problem, shared by the other Andean Republics.

Towards their northern end the Andes break into three separate cordilleras, running like the toes of a crow's foot and ripping Colombia from its southern boundary northward almost to the Caribbean. Most travel has of necessity been along the Magdalena River and the beautiful, green Cauca Valley, main arteries running between the ranges, for a traveler moving from west to east must cross the series of gigantic mountains and the valleys and tropical jungles which lie between them. In this manner nature has divided Colombia into isolated regions which in the past knew little of one another. An example is the town of Pasto, near the Ecuadorian border, so remote that other Colombians jest that the Pastuzos still pray for his Majesty, the King of Spain. In the past a representative elected from Pasto traveled on horseback for forty days before his voice could be heard in the nation's Congress at Bogotá.

Popayán, "cradle of statesmen," lies in the

southern Cauca Valley in southwestern Colombia. Bogotá, the capital and famed literary center, perches on a fertile plateau 8,600 feet up the Eastern Cordillera. Only twenty-five years ago a gentleman traveling from ancient Popayán to Bogotá journeyed on horseback for seventeen days through the Cauca Valley, over the Central Cordillera and down again to Neiva in the hot valley of the Magdalena. Here he took a small boat down stream for three days to Girardot. Thence, he went on by twisting, narrow-gauge railway up the rolling, green side of the Eastern Cordillera, through banana and coffee plantations to where Bogotá lies among the wheat fields. The trip took twenty-one days.

Before the use of steam engines and steam boats the trip from Bogotá to the Caribbean Coast lasted forty days. In the jungles lurked jaguars, boa constrictors, monkeys, small deer, and other animals. In the rivers lay alligators so big that boatmen sometimes mistook them for sand bars. Men made their wills before setting out on this journey.

Most of the rivers flow northward into the Caribbean and these have been the principal routes for travel. The great Amazon and the Orinoco touch Colombia's eastern forest, but this region is not yet populated. The Magdalena, twisting down its hot valley between jungle banks, has been the life stream of the region since prehistoric times. It is navigable to Girardot, 970 miles up stream, and river steamers go today as far as La Dorada, 590 miles from the Caribbean.

The story of the Magdalena fills much of Colombian history. Before the Spanish con-

quest Carib Indians in dugout balsa-wood canoes journeyed far up toward its headwaters. The exploring conquerors followed the River in 1538 when Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada and his warrior band struggled in full armor through 700 miles of jungle and mountain, up the Eastern Cordillera, and onto the *Sabana*, the great, dry lake bed, to found Bogotá. In the wild regions near the Caribbean and east of the lower Magdalena, a few Motilone Indians still roam and sometimes shoot a curare-poisoned arrow into a too venturesome intruder.

For Bogotá the River was the only outlet and it was not long before Hernando de Alcocer and Alfonso de Olaya Herrera, two soldiers of the conquest who had settled down as land-owners, developed a horse trail from the site of Honda on the River to Facativá near the rim of the Sabana.



A MAGDALENA RIVER BOAT

The Magdalena River has been for centuries a main artery of travel in Colombia.

They imported mule teams to lighten the work of the Indians, who were accustomed to carrying heavy loads. These two men, progressive geniuses of their time, were the first to use wheeled vehicles on the Sabana.

Shortly they completed their link with the outside world by establishing a service of *champanes*, small, hand-propelled boats, down the Magdalena. Within three years of this development warehouses appeared along the River's bank near the present site of Honda, and by 1565 commerce was such that the town of Honda was founded.

The Magdalena is a broad river with sand bars and shallows. When it is in flood the trip downstream is easy and swift, the trip upstream proportionately laborious. In drier seasons it is difficult both ways. *Champanes* continued to navigate the River until, in 1846, a far sighted President, General Tomás Cipriano de Mosquera, subsidized steam navigation. The boats were of the romantic old Mississippi River type, tall-stacked stern-wheelers. To date they have changed little and churn up and down the River scaring alligators from their sand bars, stopping at tiny landings, moving by day, tying up by the bank at night, until they reach La Dorada. Under good conditions the trip downstream is made in four days. Returning against the current may take two weeks.

Many inland areas and large towns have their river ports on the Magdalena. Short railroads feed from the producing areas into these ports. Thus Girardot and La Dorada serve Bogotá, Puerto Berrío serves Medellín, and Puerto Wilches is the outlet for Bucaramanga.

Colombia has nearly 800 miles of Pacific Coast and over 1,000 miles of Caribbean shore line. There are three principal sea ports.

Barranquilla, on the Caribbean, has grown in recent years from a village into a modern city and center of commerce. This sudden

growth is due to the dredging of sand bars from the Bocas de Ceniza at the mouth of the Magdalena, creating a fine harbor and opening the River for through traffic to the Caribbean.

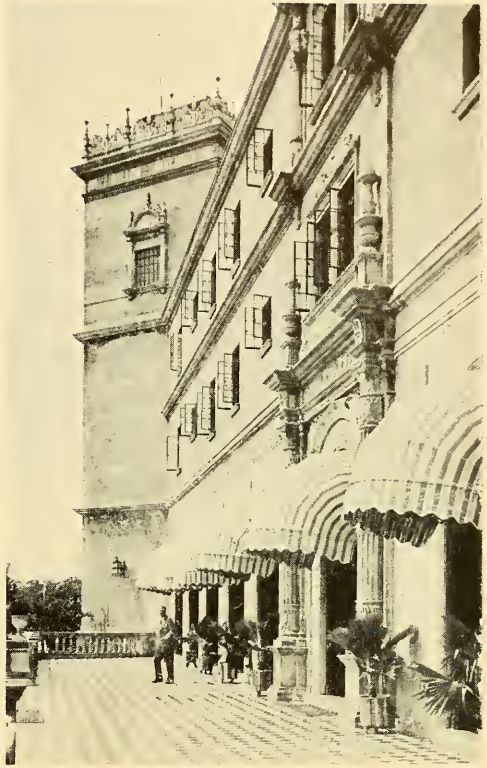
Cartagena, the heroic old fortified city which, centuries ago, underwent the sieges of buccaneers and the bombardments of British fleets, was, until the rise of Barranquilla, Colombia's leading Caribbean port. Long ago the Spaniards dropped stones across the mouth of the big harbor, the *Boca Grande*, as a protection against pirates. This left open the *Boca Chica*, or small mouth, a deep channel which enters a fine lagoon behind the city. Today ships coming to the modern docks pass beneath ancient fortress walls.

Because of the Magdalena's shallow mouth, river traffic flowed into Cartagena through a long canal built in colonial times. Later the city was connected with the River by rail. With the dredging of the River's mouth Cartagena fell to second place. But today the fickle sands of the Magdalena are again shifting into the Bocas de Ceniza, and in the breasts of Cartagenenos stirs the hope that with those sands the fate of cities too may shift.

On the Pacific coast Buenaventura is the main port. It was founded in the 16th century as a convenient outlet for Cali, Popayán and the Cauca Valley. Today, with good rail connections, it serves a much larger area.

Mail service began early. In the days of the Colony mail came from Spain by ship every six months, arriving at Cartagena where it was greeted by a joyous ringing of bells and forwarded by rider and boat to the interior. Today air mail routes are well developed to every part of the country.

Through the mountains the Spaniards built stone-paved horse and mule trails which are still in use. The Sabana de



THE HOTEL DEL PRADO, BARRANQUILLA

The city at the mouth of the Magdalena is a modern and thriving port.

Bogotá had only dusty tracks and all travel was on horseback. Carts were scarce, coaches scarcer. The journey from Bogotá to Facatativá, thirty miles, took three days. In 1850 the first macadam road in the country was built between these two towns. The results were miraculous. Stage coach lines were established, carts and carriages multiplied, agriculture flourished, and wages rose from ten to twenty-five centavos a day.

Railroad building began in 1855 with the construction of a railway across the Isthmus of Panama. The majority of the roads now in operation are narrow-gauge and were built in the late 19th century and early 20th.

Today there is no railway connecting Bogotá with the north coast. Neither is there



United Fruit Company

PART OF THE OLD FORTIFICATIONS AT CARTAGENA

Cartagena has a long history of heroic deeds in its defense against pirates and buccaneers.

a railway across the country from Ecuador to the Caribbean. The Pacific Railroad, which follows the Cauca Valley from Popayán north through Cali to La Pintada, also connects the port of Buenaventura with Bogotá and with the Magdalena by means of other railroads and highways.

Since very early times traffic over the Central Cordillera has used the 12,000-foot Quindío Pass. In 1550 a road across it was opened and in the past century Colombian engineers have developed this into a remarkable mountain highway. The Pass was never meant for tenderfeet and has its legends. Colombians, who love a humorous anecdote, tell the following story:

Long ago a horseman was crossing the Quindío Pass. Tolima's snowy summit to the north was hidden in driving clouds. The wind whipped through the pass, flapping his black cloak, and the rain blinded him. His

hat blew off, landing in deep mud, and he dismounted to get it. But he found that he had picked up the hat of another man, and there beneath it in the mud was the owner's head. Seizing the head, he pulled, and out came a man from Antioquia. The Antioqueños are intensely hard working and their thrift is proverbial. They are called the Scotchmen of Colombia. This Antioqueño hung on very hard to something buried in the mud and he would not let go. So the two of them pulled and out of the mud struggled a pair of loaded pack mules.

Long distance trucking has developed most on the highway crossing the Quindío Pass, for the Central Cordillera has defied railroad builders. The highway, of gravel, twisting interminably around precipitous mountain shoulders, forms the vital link between Buenaventura on the Pacific and Bogotá on the East. Over this strip freight

trucks shuttle, switching cargoes from the Pacific Railway, which stops at Armenia on the western slope, to Ibagué in the Magdalena Valley, where the Cundinamarca Railway begins. Today Bogotá may ship goods to the Pacific Coast in two days and shippers to the United States often prefer this route to the slower River trip.

Special small freight cars for narrow-gauge railways are assembled in Cali from parts bought in the United States and these cars are sometimes seen crossing the Quindío Pass on top of a trailer-truck on their way to the railroads farther east.

Highways are developing. From Bogotá the Simón Bolívar Highway, part of the Pan American Highway system, will take you to the neighboring capitals, Caracas and Quito, the Venezuelan route crossing the famous International Bridge, a symbol of friendship, on the frontier between two Bolivarian nations. Automobiles swarm in the streets of the towns, for Colombia is rich in oil and

throughout the war no gasoline shortage has existed.

Long distance motoring is not yet very highly developed, for the terrain makes highway construction a major engineering feat. The recently opened highway from Cali over the Western Cordillera to Buenaventura marks the completion of a scenic route from Bogotá to the Pacific. Landslides are a hazard, especially in the rainy season, and your secretary who left for a weekend in the country may wire on Monday that she is blocked by a landslide and will not be back that week.

Primitive forms of transportation are still plentiful. Dugout canoes of balsa wood are in use on all the rivers and are seen lying on the beach at Cartagena. In the interior men and women carry enormous loads on their backs with the aid of the ancient Indian tope line, a band going from the load around the forehead of the bearer. Many little towns are reached only by horse or



THE HIGHWAY TO THE SEA

The mountains in Colombia make the building of highways and railroads very difficult, but this route has surmounted the cordillera between Buenaventura and Cali.

mule trails, so the dashing horseman is still a common figure. From his deep saddle hang ornamented brass stirrups which cover the toe like a slipper. Little burros pack their loads over mountain trails and through cities, delivering anything from firewood to milk. Small, graceful schooners handle much of the coastwise trade, carrying sea salt from Cartagena and Quibdó through the Panama Canal to Buenaventura and Tumaco and returning with sugar syrup in rawhide sacks such as the ancients used for wine.

Side by side with these earlier forms the most modern transportation has developed. Andean Oil Company engineers, chopping through jungle, have laid an oil pipe line squarely across northern Colombia to Cartagena, where the tankers load. Cableways are used for crossing mountains. There are over 5,000 miles of highway and around 2,000 miles of railroads. The average train

is slow and dusty, but at the little stations the country people crowd along the tracks selling fried chicken, pineapples, potatoes, fresh gardenias. Many routes boast *auto-ferros*, single, streamlined coaches driven by gasoline engines, where you may sit in a spotless reclining chair, sip black coffee, and gaze at some of the world's most dramatically beautiful scenery.

In peace-time Grace Line and United Fruit Company ships stop regularly at Colombian ports. During the war their visits have been rare. Chilean and Argentine ships maintain a fairly regular service.

Colombia, which for centuries struggled against its natural barriers, has now found a way to jump over them. The result has been a rush of progress.

In 1920 German pilots of the First World War founded SCADTA, one of the earliest commercial air lines in the Hemisphere. They first followed the Magdalena to Girardot, then ventured up to Bogotá. Slowly they pioneered routes, built small airports. The Cali-Buenaventura flight seemed to defy them and planes crashed in the torrential rains of the Pacific slope.

In 1940, in a move to forestall Axis threats to the Hemisphere, a distinguished group of Colombians took over SCADTA. AVIANCA (Colombian National Airways) was established, with passenger, mail, and air express service. Pan American Airways, which is interested in this line, has been of great assistance.

Flying in Colombia is a thrilling business. Every pilot must pick his way over the jumbled mountain passes. He may find the Quindío Pass full of clouds, have to fly high to avoid the snowy peaks. He may be flying into Honda on the banks of the Magdalena where only the smaller planes can land and where the approach is through a deep, rocky gorge whose walls rise on either side of the wing tips. Nevertheless, AVIANCA,



IN THE BUSINESS DISTRICT, BOGOTÁ

The central part of Bogotá contains many substantial buildings.



Pan American Airways

FLYING IS POPULAR IN COLOMBIA

There are 48 commercial landing fields in the country, used by national and international airlines in their constantly increasing traffic.

with a competent staff of Colombian and American pilots, has established a truly remarkable record for safe flying. In 1943 the Company received the Inter-American Safety Council Award.

Today there are forty-eight commercial landing fields operating in Colombia, tying the remotest hamlets to the outside world. They range from Barranquilla's elegant Soledad Airport to little clearings chopped in the jungle of the Amazon basin. In addition there are the Pan American Airways seaplane base and a number of military fields of the Colombian Air Forces. By air Miami is only a day away. The Bogotá-Barranquilla trip, which otherwise takes five days at best,

is two and three-quarter hours by air. From Bogotá to Cali it is but eighty minutes.

Pan American Airways and Royal Dutch Airways stop at Barranquilla. Luxurious Pan-American-Grace Line planes cross from Cristóbal in Panama to Cali and fly on to Ecuador. In 1944 TACA airlines ran a branch into Colombia. The UMCA (Urabá, Medellín and Central Airways) connects with AVIANCA, linking Panama with the heart of Colombia. The Interocean Line ties the Caribbean cities to the towns of the Pacific Coast. The Llanos Line reaches to the far hamlets of the Amazon and Orinoco Basins.

Colombia is on the march.

The Inter-American Trade of Chile

EUGENE YSITA

Division of Economic Information, Pan American Union

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS between Chile and the other members of the Pan American family of nations have experienced during these last critical years a development of great significance. In fact, in 1944 46.4 percent of Chilean imports came from Latin American countries, chiefly Argentina, Peru, and Brazil, and 20 percent of Chilean exports were taken by those countries, the most important customers being Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Cuba, and Peru. In addition, the United States supplied 43 per cent of the imports and took more than two-thirds of the exports, exclusive of sales "to order."

While this inter-American concentration of trade has been to a large degree the result of commercial disturbances caused by the expansion of hostilities in various other regions of the world, much of it came about through significant economic developments in the Americas, such as industrialization and diversification of exportable products.

Trade developments in Chile during the period 1940 to 1943¹ offer many examples of the mutual benefits to be derived from inter-American trade. For instance, Chilean copper and nitrates are rendering great service to the war effort of the United Nations, particularly the United States, whose civilian population has also benefited by large amounts of Chilean animal products, chiefly wool and sheepskins, valued in 1943 at approximately nine million dollars. On the other hand, the United States has reciprocated by selling many products urgently needed in Chile, such as machinery, tools, chemical products, textiles, and various other

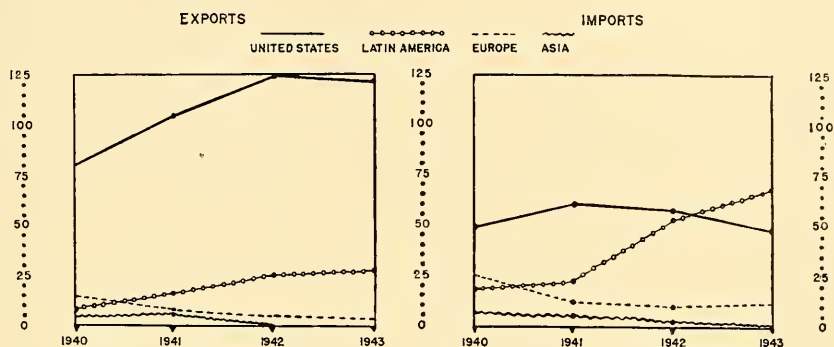
types of manufactured goods. Meanwhile, the other American Republics have sold Chile, among other cargoes, large quantities of agricultural products (especially cattle and sheep from Argentina, and coffee and maté from Brazil) valued in 1943 at twelve and a half million dollars, having received in return shipments of Chilean food products (dried peas, nuts), minerals (sulphur and nitrate), metallurgical products, and various types of manufactured goods.

A great deal of the continental concentration of Chilean trade is no doubt the result of disturbances in many markets of the world, but this fact must not lead to the conclusion that trading will continue as of old as soon as normality is restored. It is quite possible that the pattern has changed, since continental needs have increased not only through the accumulation of wartime unsatisfied demands, but through the additional needs arising from the development of economic programs. It seems, therefore, logical to assume that an era of flourishing commerce among the Americas is rapidly approaching, and that it can be converted into a permanent and expanding condition through amicable and equitable trade adjustments and agreements.

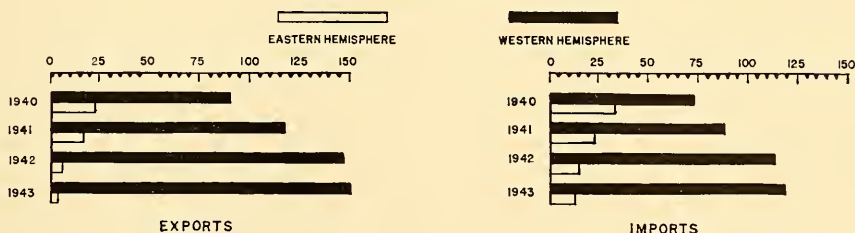
War disturbances in the Eastern Hemisphere brought about in 1943, as compared to 1940, a decrease of 67.2 percent in the value of Chilean trade with the nations of that region. On the other hand, commerce with the nations of the Western Hemisphere produced a compensatory increase of 67 percent. While the percentages almost equal each other, the value indicates a greater com-

¹ Detailed figures for 1944 are not yet available.

VALUE COMPARISON OF CHILEAN EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
SCALES IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS



MOVEMENT OF CHILEAN EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BY HEMISPHERES
SCALES IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS



pensatory tendency, since there was a loss of 36.8 million dollars and a gain of 107.4 millions respectively.

International Trade of Chile²

(Value: in millions of dollars)

	1940	1941	1942	1943
Western Hemisphere	160.3	203.2	262.3	267.7
Eastern Hemisphere	54.8	37.9	20.1	18.0

A gain of over 109 million dollars from 1940 to 1943 was the result of trade intensification between Chile and the other American Republics. Chilean commerce with those nations rose from 157.4 million dollars in 1940 to 266.4 in 1943.

² For further details pertaining to the international trade of Chile see "Commercial Pan America," Vol. XIV, January-February 1945: "The International Trade of Chile, 1940-1944."

The United States of America continued to be the foremost consumer of Chile's products and supplier of its requirements. Notwithstanding distance and wartime shipping risk and curtailments, the trade of Chile with this nation amounted to 171.4 million dollars in 1943, 32 percent, or 41.6 million dollars, more than 1940 trade.

On the other hand, the Latin American consumers of Chile's products and suppliers of its requirements increased their trade relations with this nation from goods valued at 27.6 million dollars in 1940 to 95 millions in 1943. This comparison shows a large increase—67.4 millions—which represents 62.8 percent of the total Western Hemisphere Chilean trade gain of 107.3 million dollars.

In brief, the trade of Chile with the United States and Latin America combined accounted in 1943 for 96.6 percent of the total trade of Chile with the nations of the Western Hemisphere and for 93.2 percent of the international trade of Chile.

CHILE-UNITED STATES.—In 1943, the United States of America increased its purchases of Chilean goods 52.8 percent over its 1940 acquisitions, which were valued at 80.1 million dollars. Of the 122.4 millions paid by the United States for its 1943 imports of Chilean products, 90.6 percent were destined for the purchase of mining products (mostly copper and gold; figures are not available for nitrate); 7.3 percent for animal products (wool and sheepskins), and the rest, or 2.1 percent, for agricultural products, liquors and beverages, and various other products of Chilean soil and effort.

On the other hand, Chilean imports from the United States decreased 1.4 percent in 1943 below the 49.7 million dollars paid by Chile in 1940—indeed a small decrease considering the tremendous wartime responsibilities of the United States. Of the 49 million dollars paid by Chile for the total amount of goods imported from the United States in 1943, 19 percent went for the purchase of machinery, equipment and tools; 19 percent for chemical products; 18.6 percent for various types of manufactured products; 17 percent for metallurgical products; 10.2 percent for textiles; 7.1 percent for transportation machinery and equipment; 6.7 percent for mining products; and the rest (2.3 percent) for various other types of imports.

CHILE-OTHER LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS.—The Latin American consumers of Chilean goods increased their purchases from nearly 8.4 million dollars in 1940 to 27 millions in 1943. Out of the last amount mentioned 30 percent represents purchases of Chilean agricultural products, made prin-

cipally by Cuba, Argentina, Brazil, and Bolivia; 15.2 percent, mining products, bought chiefly by Brazil and Argentina; 11.9 percent, chemical products, purchased mainly by Brazil, Bolivia, and Argentina; 8.5 percent, food products, bought particularly by Bolivia, Peru, and Ecuador; 6.3 percent, metallurgical products, purchased primarily by Argentina, Colombia, Brazil, and Peru; 5.2 percent, various types of manufactures, obtained mainly by Argentina, Bolivia, Peru, and Ecuador; 4.1 percent, sea and forest natural products, taken principally by Argentina, Peru, and Bolivia; 4 percent, textiles, purchased chiefly by Argentina, Colombia, and Bolivia; and 3 percent, liquors and beverages, obtained mainly by Ecuador, Panama, Brazil and Cuba. The rest, or 8.8 percent, represents Latin American acquisitions of various other Chilean products.

It is noteworthy that Chilean purchases of Latin American products increased from 19.2 million dollars in 1940 to 67.9 in 1943. This large increase of 48.7 million dollars clearly indicates the importance and future potentialities of the Chilean market. Consequently, Chile was able to counteract the constant decrease of imports from the nations of the Eastern Hemisphere which, because of the war, diminished from 32.5 million dollars in 1940 to 13.2 in 1943, a loss of 19.3 million dollars.

The balance of its Latin American trade continued, as shown above, to run heavily against Chile.

Of the 67.9 million dollars which Chile paid in 1943 for its purchases of Latin American products, 17.7 percent represents payment for mining products, chiefly petroleum and gasoline, which were obtained principally from the Republic of Peru; 50.4 percent for food and other agricultural products, supplied mainly by Peru, Argentina, Brazil, and Ecuador; 11.8 percent for textiles, obtained particularly from Brazil and

Argentina; 9 percent for chemical products, acquired principally from Peru and Argentina; 3.6 percent for various types of manufactured products, secured mainly from Argentina, Brazil and Mexico; 2.5 percent for metallurgical products, purchased principally from Brazil, Argentina and Mexico; 2.5 percent for transportation machinery and equipment, the major part of which was obtained from Brazil, Argentina, and Peru; and 2 percent for machinery, equipment and tools, secured chiefly from Argentina and Brazil.

The growth of the Chilean market will depend, at least until this nation achieves a larger production of diversified exports, upon the future demand for its copper and nitrate which are the present foundation of its economic structure. Nitrate sales in

1943-44 were 1,050,555 tons, a decrease from the 1,243,040 tons exported in 1942-43. Copper bars probably reached their peak production in 1944 with 490,441 tons, 1,121 tons more than in the previous year. It is hoped that the Americas will devise a system whereby these products, as well as others upon which various nations depend so greatly for their national welfare, may find outlets in the transition as well as in the postwar periods.

Meanwhile the Republic of Chile has formulated a postwar plan of great economic significance. Foremost among the developments contemplated are irrigation and electrification projects. The former will open many acres of arable land and the latter will release coal, which may become one of Chile's most important exports.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Women at the San Francisco Conference

THREE members of the Inter-American Commission of Women attended the United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco at the request of their respective countries. These were Srta. Minerva Bernardino, the Chairman, who was a delegate from the Dominican Republic; Señora Amalia C. de Castillo Ledón, the Vice Chairman, an adviser to the Mexican delegation; and Señora Isabel Sánchez de Urdaneta, a counselor to the Venezuelan delegation. All three have long been prominent in women's organizations. Srta. Bernardino was the only woman plenipotentiary delegate at the recent inter-American

conference at Mexico City. Señora de Castillo Ledón is a poet and speaker of note, while Señora de Urdaneta was a pioneer in introducing kindergartens into Venezuela.

Three other American countries numbered women among their delegates. These were Brazil, which sent Dr. Bertha Lutz, her country's outstanding feminist, who is also a famous scientist specializing in herpetology; the United States, which appointed Dean Virginia Gildersleeve of Barnard College; and Uruguay, which named Señora Isabel P. de Vidal, a member of the national Senate.

Canada and China were the only other countries that sent women as full delegates, although Australia, Canada, France, Mexico,

Norway, the Philippines, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Venezuela included women in their delegations as assistant delegates, advisers, consultants, or similar officials.

In addition to those mentioned above, the women from the American Republics were: one of the advisers for Mexico, Señora Adela Formoso de Obregón Santacilia, president and founder of the Women's University, Mexico; five technical advisers from the United States: Miss Marjorie M. Whiteman, Assistant Legal Adviser, Department of State, Mrs. Esther C. Brunauer, Miss Dorothy Fosdick, Miss Marcia Maylott, and Mrs. Alice M. McDiarmid, all of the Division of International Organization Affairs of the Department of State; and one of the counselors to the Venezuelan delegation, Señora Lucila L. de Pérez Díaz, a historian and writer.

Second National Conference of Venezuelan Women

Under the presidency of Dr. Panchita Soubllette, a young lawyer, more than 100 delegates from all parts of Venezuela and all walks of life met at Caracas March 8, 9, and 10 of this year and engaged in serious and intelligent study of the problems which they believe most vital to the women of their country. Over fifty organizations of all kinds were represented. Public interest in the Conference was shown by the fact that some government offices and private enterprises employing women gave their employees time off to attend the meetings. Furthermore, President Medina received a committee of seven delegates.

The president said in her opening address to the conference: "We must work together for the total recognition of all our rights; for the enforcement of the law on the employment of women, so that for equal work

we receive an equal wage; for the rehabilitation and health of our children, the citizens of the future; for the guarantee of true democracy; and for the determination of the role we should play as part of America, that great community of nations, when the question of our cooperation is raised at the time that peace is made."

The program of the Conference was divided into the following sections: women and suffrage; women and the municipality; women, the home, and public life; problems of the child; the Indian woman; women and the postwar world; and the woman worker. Committees discussed each topic and presented reports to the full conference for discussion.

It will be recalled that recent constitutional amendments gave women the right to vote in municipal elections and to hold municipal office. The conference decided that efforts should be continued to obtain full national suffrage. In the meantime, a committee was appointed to make detailed studies on the municipal problems of each section of the country, these reports to be presented to the First Congress of Venezuelan Women, which will be held at Caracas next year.

The Committee on Women and the Postwar World asked that women be included in the Venezuelan Commission for the Study of Postwar Problems and that women should be appointed on delegations to all postwar conferences. (See above.) Assistance to countries with a backward economy and a higher standard of living for such countries were other subjects discussed by this committee.

The conference voted to make an effort to strengthen labor unions. It also made a number of recommendations for government protection of the mother and child and endorsed a plan for establishing a correctional school and other social services.

Venezuelan women thus gave an additional proof of their forward-looking interests and activities, evidenced in the past in the progressiveness of both individuals and organizations and their work for their fellow women.

National Council of Women's Organizations in Cuba

About twenty outstanding Cuban women's organizations recently sent delegates to a

meeting in Habana to discuss united action in the definition and solution of postwar problems in social, economic, and cultural fields. Other women present were the owners of two large Cuban dailies. A Council was formed by the societies represented, and others are invited to join. The Council, which offered its cooperation to the Government, expects to publish pamphlets containing papers on timely subjects contributed by members of the Council specializing in the topics under discussion.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR ⁸ , ¹² STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	¹ Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	² Bulgaria ³ Rumania ⁴ Hungary	
Argentina.....	⁵ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(⁷)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	⁸ G-2-12-45	⁸ 2-12-45 ¹⁴ 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	⁹ 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (¹⁰)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	¹¹ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	¹² G-2-11-45	¹² 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States..	(¹³)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	⁸ 2-14-45	⁸ 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

PART XL

ARGENTINA

191a. (Correction) October 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 29,671. (*Boletín Oficial*, November 23, 1944.)

203. December 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 34,303, putting the Y.P.F. in charge of regulating the production and consumption of electric power throughout the country; forbidding the illumination of display windows, store fronts, and all commercial signs; limiting the hours of business of commercial establishments, offices, and factories; and taking other steps to conserve electric power. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 31, 1944.)

204. January 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 288, creating the Department of Aeronautics (*Secretaría de Aeronáutica*). (*Boletín Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

205. January 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 752, prohibiting the exportation of spinning mill machinery. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 25, 1945.)

206. January 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 772, subjecting the exportation of linen fiber, tow, thread, textiles, and manufactures to prior permit, and repealing all contradictory provisions of Presidential Decree No. 134,872 of November 14, 1942 (see Argentina 38, BULLETIN, March 1943). (*Boletín Oficial*, January 25, 1945.)

207. January 15, 1945. General Public Resolution No. 1, Department of Industry and Commerce, regulating the application of Presidential Decree No. 29,671 of October 20, 1944 (see Argentina 191a, BULLETIN, March and April 1945 and above), regarding control of critical materials, and validating List No. 1 of Critical Materials. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

208. January 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1,143, fixing maximum prices for scrap iron; declaring it to be a critical material subject to the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 29,671 (see Argentina 191a, BULLETIN, March and April 1945 and above); providing that the Department of Industry and Commerce carry out a national drive for the collection of scrap iron; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 19, 1945.)

209. January 17, 1945. Resolution No. 939, Department of Industry and Commerce, requiring the National Milk Industry Committee to make monthly reports to the Supply Office on stocks,

production, consumption, and exportation of butter, so that monthly butter export quotas may be fixed; providing that the firms interested in exporting butter present their requests to the Export Office, which will authorize them up to the limit of the quota; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 1, 1945.)

210. January 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1,417, requiring declarations of stocks of rubber tires and tubes; canceling all unused permits to acquire automobile tires; setting up priority systems for the distribution of automobile and truck tires and tubes; providing that until further notice no authorizations will be granted for manufacturing automobile tires and no tires allotted for private automobiles; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 30, 1945.)

211. January 23, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1,604, creating in the Department of Industry and Commerce an honorary Advisory Committee on problems of commerce in livestock, meat, and their by-products. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 30, 1945.)

212. January 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1,785, prohibiting, except in certain cases, the exportation of empty glass containers, and requiring prior permits for the exportation of glass, glass manufactures, and sodium silicate and carbonate as long as a scarcity exists within the country; and repealing all conflicting legislation. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

213. January 26, 1945. Vice-Presidential Resolution providing that the Permanent Interministerial Committee on Economic Policy will serve as a technical subcommittee of the National Postwar Council in matters concerning international commerce; and creating the National Postwar Council Subcommittees on Industrial Orientation and Industrial Defense. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 3, 1945.)

214. January 30, 1945. Resolution No. 1,556, Department of Industry and Commerce, declaring officially completed the task assigned to the Advisory Board for Commerce in and Industrialization of Oleaginous Seeds, which was created by Resolution No. 5,690 of November 17, 1944 (see Argentina 196, BULLETIN, April 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, February 15, 1945.)

215. February 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2,505, requiring that decrees drafted by the Department of Industry and Commerce fixing maximum

prices or in any way affecting international trade and those drafted by the Labor and Welfare Department or other departments fixing wages and working hours be accompanied when presented to the President by the report of the National Postwar Council on their advisability; providing that the Labor and Welfare Department must have a favorable report from the National Postwar Council in order to put into effect new wage scales or working hours; and requiring the Ministry of the Treasury, the Department of Industry and Commerce, and the Labor and Welfare Department to submit to the National Postwar Council within thirty days drafts of decrees designed to prevent inflation, prepare for reconversion, establish minimum wages, stabilize prices, and achieve other specified ends. (*Boletim Oficial*, February 5, 1945.)

BRAZIL

171a. January 12, 1945. Order No. 330, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, regulating distribution of the 1945 quota of truck and omnibus chassis imported from the United States. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

171b. January 12, 1945. Order No. 331, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, regulating prices for penicillin and extending the provisions of the Pharmaceutical Convention (see Brazil 92*u*, BULLETIN, June 1944) to pharmaceutical accessories. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

171c. January 12, 1945. Order No. 332, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing the margin of profit on sales of raw materials for medical products and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, January 13, 1945.)

173. January 15, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7243, exempting from the payment of specified license fees for the duration of the war all professional men called into the armed services. (*Diário Oficial*, January 17, 1945.)

174. January 24, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7265, levying a tax on textiles for the purpose of financing the services of the Executive Textile Commission (see Brazil 104 and 110, BULLETIN, October and December 1944 and January 1945). (*Diário Oficial*, January 26, 1945.)

175. January 26, 1945. Order No. 337, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, adding imported gum lac to the list of products included under the license service covering the distribution of imports established by Order No. 286 of September 23,

1944 (see Brazil 122*e*, BULLETIN, March 1945). (*Diário Oficial*, January 27, 1945.)

176. February 1, 1945. Order No. 341, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, establishing standards for the fixing and approval of prices in hotels and boarding houses. (*Diário Oficial*, February 2, 1945.)

177. February 7, 1945. Order No. 345, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, abolishing the supervisory service of the Pharmaceutical Convention and transferring its functions to other existing agencies. (*Diário Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

178. February 8, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7306, fixing rules and regulations covering exportation of textiles. (*Diário Oficial*, February 10, 1945.)

179. February 9, 1945. Order No. 346, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, making further provisions with regard to the agencies assigned the duties of supervising the Pharmaceutical Convention (see 177 above). (*Diário Oficial*, February 10, 1945.)

180. February 14, 1945. Order No. 347, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, regulating the exportation and importation of products subject to control of the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization. (*Diário Oficial*, February 15, 1945.)

181. February 17, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7328, creating within the Foreign Trade Council a National Food Commission to study and plan improvements in the national food policies, and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

182. February 24, 1945. Order No. 350, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, repealing Order No. 291 of October 10, 1944 (see Brazil 122*j*, BULLETIN, March 1945), regarding traffic of gasoline-equipped vehicles. (*Diário Oficial*, February 26, 1945.)

183. February 27, 1945. Order No. 352, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating a Supply Commission in the Territory of Rio Branco and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diário Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

184. March 1, 1945. Order No. 355, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, outlining in detail the duties and functions of the agencies designated to supervise the Pharmaceutical Convention (see 177 and 179 above). (*Diário Oficial*, March 2, 1945.)

185. March 6, 1945. Order No. 356, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, suspending for six

months the exportation of specified foodstuffs and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diário Oficial*, March 7, 1945.)

186. April 3, 1945. Note, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, announcing the establishment of diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union. (*Boletim Aéreo No. 344*, Secção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, Rio de Janeiro, April 6, 1945.)

CHILE

78*b*₁. March 16, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,247, authorizing the Central Bank of Chile to buy and sell gold certificates to regulate the currency under the provisions of Law No. 7,747 of December 23, 1943 (see Chile, 76*c*, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, March 24, 1944.)

79*o*. March 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,420, regulating certain customs exemptions for machinery imported for specified new industries. (*Diario Oficial*, May 20, 1944.)

111*a*. August 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 854, regulating the provisions of Law No. 7,747 of December 23, 1943 (see Chile 76*c*, BULLETIN, June 1944) in regard to wartime control of importation, distribution, and prices of articles of prime necessity, and making regulations for enforcement. (*Diario Oficial*, September 2, 1944.)

124. August 31, 1944. Decree No. 2,406, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, prolonging the effectiveness of Decree No. 2,027 of October 14, 1943 (see Chile 74*a*, BULLETIN, May 1944) as amended by Decree No. 2,292 of August 14, 1944 (see Chile 117, BULLETIN, January 1945) in regard to meat prices in Santiago and Valparaíso. (*Diario Oficial*, September 1, 1944.)

125. August 31, 1944. Resolution No. 26, Petroleum Supply Committee, amending Resolution No. 14 of July 8, 1944 (see Chile 91, BULLETIN, January 1945), which regulated the sale of gasoline to buses and taxis. (*Diario Oficial*, September 2, 1944.)

126. September 4, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 990, declaring cattle, sheep, goats, and swine for slaughter to be commodities of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, September 22, 1944.)

127. September 15, 1944. Decree No. 2,569, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,261 of November 17, 1943 (see Chile 76*a*, BULLETIN, June 1944) to fix higher maximum wholesale prices for jute bags. (*Diario Oficial*, September 16, 1944.)

128. September 15, 1944. Decree No. 2,573, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,062 of October 20, 1943 (see Chile 74*b*, BULLETIN, May 1944) to fix higher maximum wholesale and retail prices for condensed milk. (*Diario Oficial*, September 21, 1944.)

129. September 21, 1944. Decree No. 2,587, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, defining used tires and prescribing regulations for their sale. (*Diario Oficial*, September 23, 1944.)

130. September 23, 1944. Decree No. 2,650, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 1,307 of May 22, 1944 (see Chile 79*a*₂, BULLETIN, March 1945), which regulated the distribution and consumption of edible oils. (*Diario Oficial*, September 26, 1944.)

131. September 30, 1944. Decree No. 2,773, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,331 of November 26, 1943 (see Chile 76*b*, BULLETIN, June 1944) to fix new maximum wholesale and retail prices for sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, October 4, 1944.)

132. September 30, 1944. Decree No. 2,775, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, repealing Decrees Nos. 2,292 and 2,406 of August 14 and 31, 1944 (see Chile 117, BULLETIN, January 1945 and 124 above), and returning maximum beef prices in Santiago and Valparaíso to the figures fixed by Decree No. 2,027 of October 14, 1943 (see Chile 74*a*, BULLETIN, May 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, October 4, 1944.)

133. October 20, 1944. Decree No. 2,907, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, extending to the Department of Valparaíso the provisions of Decree No. 1,424 of June 5, 1944 (see Chile 80, BULLETIN, October 1944 and March 1945), which required that price lists be posted in soda fountains, lunch rooms, etc. (*Diario Oficial*, October 23, 1944.)

134. October 20, 1944. Decree No. 2,918, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requiring that stocks of articles of prime necessity be registered within 60 days, and prescribing procedures therefor. (*Diario Oficial*, October 23, 1944.)

135. October 28, 1944. Decree No. 2,947, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing wholesale and retail beef prices for Santiago and Valparaíso and prescribing procedures for their regulation. (*Diario Oficial*, October 31, 1944.)

COLOMBIA

128*b*₂. August 5, 1944. Resolution No. 479, National Price Control Office, fixing a maximum price for "extra fine" flour. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

143*a*. September 15, 1944. Resolution No. 569, National Price Control Office, fixing the price of anise. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

148*a*. October 11, 1944. Resolution No. 591, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 508 of August 11, 1944 (see Colombia 128*c*, BULLETIN, January 1945) by reducing the retail price of penicillin. *Diario Oficial*, October 24, 1944.)

154*a*. January 17, 1945. Resolution No. 30, National Price Control Office, clarifying the exceptions noted under Resolution No. 50 of October 29, 1943 (see Colombia 90*f*, BULLETIN, March and April 1944), which fixed certain rents at July 1942 levels. (*Diario Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

154*b*. January 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 49, fixing minimum prices for various types of domestic cotton. (*Diario Oficial*, January 29, 1945.)

154*c*. February 10, 1945. Resolution No. 82, National Price Control Office, amplifying the provisions of Resolution No. 479 of August 5, 1944 and RESOLUTION No. 536 of September 1, 1944 (see Colombia 128*b*₂ above and 138, BULLETIN, January 1945) in order to keep the price of "extra fine" flour in a constant relation with wheat costs. (*Diario Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

154*d*. February 13, 1945. Resolution No. 83, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 569 of September 15, 1944 (see Colombia 143*a* above) by fixing a new price for anise. (*Diario Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

155. Resolution No. 91. (*Diario Oficial*, March 3, 1945.)

156. February 14, 1945. Resolution No. 86, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 591 of October 11, 1944 (see Colombia 148*a* above) by making a further reduction in the retail price of penicillin. (*Diario Oficial*, March 2, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

185. March 14, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 7, suspending certain constitutional guaran-

tees for a period of 60 days. (*La Gaceta*, March 17, 1945.)

186. March 26, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 57 (Economic Defense Law), listing articles of prime necessity, fixing their maximum prices at February 1945 retail price levels in San José, prescribing procedure for price enforcement, creating an Office of Economic Defense consisting of Departments of Prices, Quotas, and of Gasoline and Rubber Distribution, prescribing their duties and procedures, and making other pertinent provisions. (*La Gaceta*, March 27, 1945.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

157. January 31, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2439, repealing Decree No. 153 of August 4, 1942, as amended by Decree No. 165 of August 11, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 43*d* and 45*a*, BULLETIN, March 1943); providing that all clocks in the Republic be set back 40 minutes at midnight February 5, 1945; and repealing conflicting parts of Decree No. 456 of November 26, 1942 and other specified legislation (see Dominican Republic 58, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 2, 1945.)

158. March 8, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2509, authorizing the Department of State for Agriculture, Industry, and Labor, to issue permits for the importation from the United States of cotton fiber and seed, under specified conditions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

159. March 21, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2532, amending Decree No. 1530 of March 2, 1942, which established control over the Dominican merchant marine (see Dominican Republic 13, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 23, 1945.)

160. March 22, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2543, repealing Decree No. 101 of July 6, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 41*f*, BULLETIN, March 1943) and making new provisions regarding the acquisition by foreigners of real property. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 24, 1945.)

ECUADOR

95. December 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 787, clarifying Art. 7 of Presidential Resolution No. 111 of November 18, 1944 (see Ecuador 93, BULLETIN, March and June 1945), with particular respect to the shipment of exports already contracted for at the old rate of exchange. (*Registro Oficial*, January 10, 1945.)

96. December 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 793, empowering the Ministry of Economy to authorize the duty-free importation of sugar. (*Registro Oficial*, January 17, 1945.)

97. December 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 835, repealing Decree No. 1836 of November 26, 1942 (see Ecuador 46, *BULLETIN*, July 1943), which prohibited for the duration of the war the publication or broadcast of meteorological information. (*Registro Oficial*, January 23, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

102. February 14, 1945. Executive Decree placing restrictions on the sale and use of molasses and making the General Revenue Office responsible for the enforcement of these restrictions. (*Diario Oficial*, February 21, 1945.)

103. February 21, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 3, exempting rice, cocoa beans and sole leather from all import duties, and authorizing the Executive Power to provide for price and import control for these products. (*Diario Oficial*, February 26, 1945.)

104. February 21, 1945. Executive Decree placing the sale and distribution of sugar under the control of the Federation of Rural Credit Banks and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, February 26, 1945.)

GUATEMALA

120*b*. September 22, 1944. Presidential order amending the order of September 18, 1944 (see Guatemala 120*a*, *BULLETIN*, February 1945) to transfer control over importation of tires and gasoline from the army to the Section of Economic-Financial Coordination, leaving the army in control of their distribution. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 19, 1945.)

128*a*. December 26, 1944. Decree No. 47, Revolutionary Junta, placing the Section of Economic-Financial Coordination under the newly organized Department of Economy. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 28, 1944.)

135. April 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1, suspending certain constitutional guarantees for a period of 30 days. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 9, 1945.)

136. April 9, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 59, approving Presidential Decree No. 1 of April 6, 1945 (see Guatemala 135 above), and making its provisions retroactive to April 4, 1945, inclusive. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 11, 1945.)

137. April 21, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 90, Law of Economic Emergency, listing articles of prime necessity; instructing the executive branch to control their importation, exportation, and distribution, to organize systems of rationing and price control, and to issue regulations therefor; and amending Presidential Decree No. 3,074 of September 13, 1943 (see Guatemala 90, *BULLETIN*, January 1944) to extend the provisions of the rent control decree (No. 2,749) of May 5, 1942 (see Guatemala 21, *BULLETIN*, August 1942) until Congress shall consider that the emergency period has ended. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 21, 1945.)

HAITI

99. Decree-Law No. 429. (*Le Moniteur*, September 21, 1944.)

103. December 27, 1944. Communiqué, Departments of State for Agriculture and Labor and for Commerce and National Economy, fixing minimum purchase prices for the 1944-45 cotton crop. (*Le Moniteur*, December 28, 1944.)

104. January 11, 1945. Executive Decree No. 475, providing that all airports and landing fields in Haitian territory may belong only to the Government, although arrangements for their use may be made with the Government. (*Le Moniteur*, January 11, 1945.)

105. February 1, 1945. Executive Decree No. 485, amending Art. 9 of the decree of February 14, 1942, as amended by the decree of April 16, 1942 (see Haiti 29 and 39, *BULLETIN*, June and August 1942), with reference to military court procedures. (*Le Moniteur*, February 1, 1945.)

106. February 15, 1945. Executive Order No. 494, nationalizing all properties of a specified business firm, under the provisions of the decree on enemy property of February 25, 1944 (see Haiti 87, *BULLETIN*, July 1944). (*Le Moniteur*, February 22, 1945.)

107. February 15, 1945. Executive Order No. 495, nationalizing all properties of a specified person under the provisions of the decree on enemy property of February 25, 1944 (see Haiti 87, *BULLETIN*, July 1944). (*Le Moniteur*, February 22, 1945.)

HONDURAS

46. February 1, 1945. Executive Order No. 248, recognizing the juridical personality of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and granting to the Administration certain

rights, privileges, and immunities similar to those granted diplomatic missions. (*La Gaceta*, May 1, 1945.)

47. February 22, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 54, approving Executive Order No. 248 (see 46 above) regarding the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. (*La Gaceta*, March 14, 1945.)

48. February 22, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 55, authorizing the Executive Power to pay the contribution of Honduras to the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. (*La Gaceta*, March 7, 1945.)

MEXICO

287*a*₁. January 18, 1945. Decree promulgating the Mexican-Canadian agreement of February 29, 1944, regarding the conscription of nationals of both countries (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 138*a*₂ below). (*Diario Oficial*, April 10, 1945.)

288*a*. February 10, 1945. Decree authorizing and designating the flag to be used by the Mexican Expeditionary Air Force. (*Diario Oficial*, April 18, 1945.)

288*b*. February 14, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

288*c*. February 14, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1945.)

288*d*. February 14, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing with respect to a specified firm the resolution of April 26, 1944 (see Mexico 244*d*, BULLETIN, October 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

288*e*. February 14, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing with respect to specified persons the resolutions of September 8 and 9 and October 7, 1942 (see Mexico 82*c*, 84*a*, 84*b*, and 93, BULLETIN, January and March 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

288*f*. February 16, 1945. Decree prohibiting the exportation of quinine, placing its sale and distribution under control of the Department of Health and Welfare, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

291*a*. March 7, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

291*b*. March 12, 1945. Decree repealing the decree of June 2, 1944 (see Mexico 247, BULLETIN, September 1944), which established control over real estate operations in the Federal District. (*Diario Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

291*c*. March 13, 1945. Decree levying a 3 percent retail sales tax on luxury goods (rugs and carpets; antiques; motion picture and other cameras and accessories; radios and accessories; crystal and china ware; watches, clocks, jewelry, and costume jewelry; toilet articles; automobiles; furniture, including pianos; and art objects), and prescribing rules and regulations concerning exemptions and collection. Effective 15 days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, April 5, 1945.)

293. March 14, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

294. March 21, 1945. Resolution, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

54. (Correction) April 20, 1944. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, July 1944.)

55*a*. May 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3878, regulating the exportation of and fixing prices for tobacco. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, August 1944.)

55*b*. June 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3902, regulating the exportation of yerba maté. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, July 1944.)

55*b*. July 7, 1944. Resolution, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, approving the list of ar-

titles of prime necessity submitted by the National Food Administration. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, July 1944.)

571. (Correction) August 3, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4706, prescribing new regulations concerning the production, processing, distribution, and exportation of yerba maté. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, August 1944.)

58a. September 22, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 5253, prohibiting, with certain exceptions, the exportation of yerba maté. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, October 1944.)

59a. September 28, 1944. Resolution No. 30, National Department of Labor, fixing minimum wages for specified classes of maritime and port workers. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, October 1944.)

59b. September 30, 1944. Resolution No. 31, National Department of Labor, fixing minimum wages for stevedores and sailors. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, October 1944.)

59c. October —, 1944. Resolution No. 33, National Department of Labor, fixing minimum wages for commerce and industry. (*Paraguay Industrial y Comercial*, Asunción, October 1944.)

64a. November 13, 1944. Decree No. 5985, approving a charter for the National Food Administration (see Paraguay 54, BULLETIN, September 1944 and February 1945) and authorizing the organization to function as an official body. (*Revista del Centro de Importadores*, Asunción, November 1944.)

PERU

145a. December 29, 1944. Presidential Decree extending until December 31, 1945, the effectiveness of previous rent control legislation. (*Boletín Mensual de la Cámara de Comercio de Lima*, January 1945.)

146. January 2, 1945. Resolution, Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, approving the Official Price List for Pharmaceutical Products for 1945, to become effective April 1, 1945, and making other pertinent provisions. (*El Peruano*, March 10, 1945.)

147. January 12, 1945. Law No. 10,168, amending previous income tax legislation, in view of the higher cost of living, by increasing individual and family exemptions. (*Boletín Mensual de la Cámara de Comercio de Lima*, January 1945.)

URUGUAY

245a. December 27, 1944. Law approving the convention on the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration signed at Washington on November 9, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944) and approving Uruguay's contribution to UNRRA's fund. (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1945.)

246a. January 5, 1945. Presidential decree suspending certain traffic regulations in order to expedite the transit of vehicles loaded with forage. (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1945.)

246b. January 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3100/944, fixing prices for and regulating the sale of a certain stock of tin. (*Diario Oficial*, January 18, 1945.)

251. February 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 501/943, prohibiting the exportation of live cattle with the exception of animals for breeding. (*Diario Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

252. February 23, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2578/944, fixing prices for asphalt produced by ANCAP. (*Diario Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

253. February 23, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2288/939, setting a time limit on the effectiveness of fixed prices for burlap bags. (*Diario Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

(Correction) Item No. 163a, BULLETIN, May 1945, should have been numbered 171a.

200a. February 5, 1945. Resolution No. 24, National Supply Commission, regulating prices, sales, and distribution of sugar in specified localities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 5, 1945.)

200b. February 6, 1945. Resolution No. 25, National Supply Commission, fixing prices for a specified lot of tires and tubes imported from Brazil in January. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1945.)

205. February 28, 1945. Resolution, Ministry of the Treasury, making heads of Municipal Councils responsible for enforcing price regulations in districts where there are no local offices of the National Supply Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

(Correction) Item 156a, BULLETIN, May 1945, should have been omitted.

138^{ds}. February 29, 1944. Exchange of notes between the Governments of Canada and Mexico constituting an agreement on the conscription of Canadian and Mexican nationals. (*Diario Oficial*, Mexico, April 10, 1945.)

139^b. March 23 and 24, 1944. Exchange of notes effecting an agreement between the War Food Administration of the United States and the Newfoundland Commissioner for Public Works for the provision of Newfoundland workers for agricultural labor in the United States. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 29, 1945.)

182^a. March 8 and 10, 1945. Exchange of notes effecting an amendment of work agreements between the War Food Administration of the United States and the Newfoundland Commissioner for Public Works, with special regard to health and medical care for Newfoundland agricultural workers in the United States (see 139^b above). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 29, 1945.)

183^a. April 5, 1945. Agreement between the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute and the Commodity Credit Corporation of the United States, for the latter to purchase all of Cuba's 1945 sugar crop in excess of 400,000 tons. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 8, 1945.)

183^b. April 5, 1945. Agreement between the Foreign Economic Administration of the United States and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute for the purchase by the former of 70 million gallons of blackstrap molasses for the production of industrial alcohol. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 8, 1945.)

185. April 12, 1945. Adherence by the Republic of Lebanon to the Declaration by United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 15, 1945.)

186. April 12, 1945. Adherence by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the Declaration by United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 15, 1945.)

187. April 12, 1945. Adherence by the Republic of Syria to the Declaration by United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 15, 1945.)

188. April 14, 1945. Resolution of the Fourth Meeting of the International Cotton Advisory Committee (to which representatives were sent by

India, Turkey, the USSR, Mexico, Brazil, Peru, the British Cotton-Exporting Colonies, Egypt, the French Cotton-Exporting Colonies, and the United States), recommending the appointment of a study group to prepare and report on a plan for international action on cotton production, exportation, and importation. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 22, 1945.)

189. April 17, 1945. Agreement, known as the Fourth Protocol, signed by representatives of the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and the Soviet Union, covering the provision of supplies to the Soviet Union in furtherance of the war against the common enemy; the period covered by the Protocol is July 1, 1944-June 30, 1945. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 53 and 117, BULLETIN, December 1942 and January 1944.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 22, 1945.)

190. April 17, 1945. Exchange of notes between the Governments of the United States and the Union of South Africa regarding cooperation in the formulation of a program of agreed action for the expansion of production, employment, and trade. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 22, 1945.)

191. April 17, 1945. Exchange of notes between the Governments of the United States and the Union of South Africa placing all forms of mutual aid provided by the former to the latter upon a cash basis as of February 15, 1944. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 22, 1945.)

192. April 20, 1945. Signature by Cuba of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, the International Air Services Transit Agreement (Two Freedoms), and the International Air Transport Agreement (Five Freedoms). (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171^a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 6, 1945.)

193. April 25, 1945. Inauguration at San Francisco, California, of the United Nations Conference on International Organization. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, April 29, 1945.)

194. April 26, 1945. Agreement between the War Food Administration of the United States and the Government of Cuba, whereby the former will make available to the latter 1,200,000 200-pound bags of flour during the ensuing twelve months. (*Press Release 773-45*, United States Department of Agriculture, April 30, 1945.)

195. April 30, 1945. Two lend-lease agreements between the Governments of the United States and the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the one providing that the United States furnish to the Netherlands supplies essential to the prosecution of the war and the other confirming and extending existing arrangements under which the Netherlands sup-

plies reverse lend-lease aid to the United States. These agreements supplement the Master Agreement of July 8, 1942, and supersede the reverse lend-lease agreement of June 14, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 26 and 99, BULLETIN, October 1942 and October 1943). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 6, 1945.)

Pan American News

Revision of Colombian constitution

Colombia's framework of government was readjusted at various points by the constitutional revision of February 1945, first modification since 1940 of the constitution of 1886. Many of the changes are procedural, a large number of them dealing with details of budget operations, succession to the presidency, and the administration of justice at various levels.

The ordinary citizen's stake in his government is recognized by a strengthening of provisions for public access to meetings of Congress; three public sessions a week are now to be required, and the committees as well as the chambers themselves are to hold public sessions. Among the qualifications for senator an experience requirement takes the place of the earlier income requirement; to be eligible to the senate a man must now have served in one of a specified list of public offices, unless he holds a university degree and has been following one of the liberal professions. Senators are to be chosen by direct vote of the electorate, instead of by the Department Assemblies.

Women are expressly excluded from the electorate, and so are members of the army and of the police force while on active duty. Women are also barred from any elective office, although they do by implication re-

ceive the right of citizenship; citizenship now attaches to Colombians over 21, instead of to male Colombians over 21 as specified before.

Special status is provided by the revised constitution for the city of Bogotá. As capital of the republic it is to constitute a special district, not subject to various departmental requirements made of other cities, and any village near Bogotá which desires to be included in this special district may be annexed at the request of three fourths of its municipal council.

Appraisal of Western Hemisphere military aviation facilities

A technical committee of 12 air delegates to the Inter-American Defense Board left Washington May 14, 1945 to begin gathering information for an appraisal of Western Hemisphere military aviation facilities. Findings will be based on inspections of air fields and related installations in each of the twenty-one American Republics.

Members of the Committee will make on-the-spot studies, weighing such factors as the strategic and tactical value of existing air fields, their security from attack or sabotage, the need for additional fields to meet strategic and tactical requirements, meteorological and communications services, and other

technical matters. On the basis of these studies the Inter-American Defense Board may later transmit to the governments of the American Republics any recommendations considered desirable for the improvement of air power in the Western Hemisphere.

The survey, which is the first of its kind ever undertaken by an international organization on a hemisphere-wide scale, was made possible through unanimous approval by the Governments of the American Republics of a resolution of the Inter-American Defense Board recommending such a study.

Major General Robert L. Walsh, United States air delegate to the Board, is Chairman of the Committee, and the other members are: Brigadier General Antonio Parodi, Argentina; General Armando Revoredo, Peru; Colonel Oscar Morales López, Guatemala; Colonel Medardo Farías, Uruguay; Lt. Colonel Alfredo Pacheco, Bolivia; Lt. Colonel Clovis Monteiro Travassos, Brazil; Wing Commander Arturo Meneses, Chile; Lt. Colonel Herman Barón, El Salvador; Major Josué López Henríquez, Venezuela; Major Rafael Valdés, Colombia; and Major Eduardo Aldasoro Suárez, Mexico.

Tax legislation in Uruguay, Brazil, and Mexico

Taxation, a phase of government that reaches out and touches man the world over, recently found expression in new fields in Uruguay, Brazil, and Mexico. Uruguayan Law No. 10,597, approved December 26, 1944, levied an excess profits tax. In Brazil, where an excess profits tax has been in effect for a year, Decree-Law No. 7219-A, approved December 30, 1944, levied a general sales tax. By means of a decree approved March 13, 1945, and effective April 20, 1945, Mexico levied a luxury sales tax.

Uruguay's new tax applies to all earnings in excess of 12 percent of invested capital

of all trade, industrial, agricultural and livestock, and other commercial activities exercised in the form of a business enterprise. Exemptions are granted to the earnings of all business activities not conducted in the form of a company and to the earnings of businesses whose capital does not exceed 50,000 pesos, provided they are not stock companies.

In figuring the taxable earnings, profits are to be computed after deduction of all operational and maintenance expenses, including extraordinary losses and investments in plant equipment for enlarging productive capacity. Owners' and shareholders' remuneration, personal expenses, insurance payments, interest on investments made by members of the enterprise, and similar items are not deductible from the tax base.

The tax rates are progressive, ranging from 15 percent on profits in excess of 12 to 15 percent of invested capital to 30 percent when earnings exceed 30 percent of invested capital. The tax will be in effect for three complete business years, beginning with the calendar year 1944. Seventy-five percent of the yield is allocated to the nation's General Revenue Fund and the remaining 25 percent will be placed in a special fund to be used for lowering the cost of articles of prime necessity.

Brazil's new sales tax applies to both domestic and imported articles and covers a wide range of consumer's goods of many kinds, including such items as household equipment and appliances; scientific, surgical, and optical supplies; metal manufactures in general; arms, munitions, and fireworks; manufactures of materials of animal or vegetable origin (leather, fur, bone, shell, amber, wood, raffia, seeds, plastics, etc.); sports equipment; glass and pottery; all kinds of men's, women's, and children's hats or headgear; cement and manufactures of cement, clay, and natural or artificial stone;

electric current; brooms, brushes, and sweepers; precious and semi-precious stones, jewelry, clocks, and watches; paper and paper products; miscellaneous foodstuffs, including cereals, prepared mixed flours, biscuits, canned and preserved meats, fish, fruits, and vegetables, animal and vegetable oils and fats, confections, spices, baking powder, yeast, salt, vinegar, chocolate, coffee, and tea; pharmaceutical and medical products and supplies; dyes, enamels, varnishes, and similar items; candles; all types of footwear; furniture; alcohol and alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages; playing cards; electric light bulbs; matches and lighters; cigars, cigarettes, and tobacco; gasoline, kerosene, and fuel oil; umbrellas; perfumes and toilet articles; and textiles, knit goods, lace, cordage, and thread.

In view of the scope of the tax, which applies to scores of articles that are definitely outside the luxury class, the rates are high compared with sales taxes levied by various states of the United States. The rates vary according to the kind of merchandise, but on most domestic articles it is fixed on a percentage basis ranging from 2 percent to 10 percent of the factory sales price. The tax on imported goods of the same type is usually 50 percent to 100 percent higher. The tax on the consumption of electricity is 3 percent per month. On certain kinds of goods, however, such as shoes, furniture, alcohol and beverages, electric light bulbs, matches, tobacco products, liquid fuels, toilet articles, salt, vinegar, and textiles, the tax is levied according to a fixed scale based on factory unit prices.

The Brazilian sales tax must be paid on all articles before they leave the factory or warehouse, but it is ultimately passed on to the consumer. It is collected through stamps or labels which must be affixed to the articles offered for sale. The tax went into effect on February 1, 1945, and a six-

member Sales Tax Advisory Board, composed of three representatives of the Treasury Department and three representatives of the taxpayers, was established under the Internal Revenue Office to aid in interpreting and applying the law.

The law did not specify any special use for the proceeds of the tax; presumably, therefore, the revenues will accrue to the general fund.

Mexico's tax on luxury articles is a straight 3 percent levy on the retail price, payable by the consumer. The list of taxable items includes rugs and carpets; antiques; motion picture and other photographic apparatus and accessories; radios and accessories; crystal, porcelain, and imitation wares; watches, clocks, jewelry, and costume jewelry; cosmetics and toilet articles; automobiles; furniture, pianos, and player pianos; art objects; and fur coats.

Certain low-price rugs, carpets, soaps, tooth and hair brushes, combs, dentifrices, motor vehicles (selling for less than 8,000 pesos), furniture, china, and glass are exempted from the tax, as are also art objects when the sale is made directly by the artist who produces the works. The tax applies to all other articles on the tax list regardless of their selling price.

Revenues resulting from this tax will be allocated to Mexico's general fund.

Bolivian banking decree

A Bolivian Supreme Decree dated January 30, 1945, raises the minimum of cash on hand which banks are required to maintain.

Considering that the legal percentages fixed in 1928 are inadequate to meet the present situation, the decree provides that from March 31 to December 31, 1945, the amount of cash on hand in a bank must be equal to 30 percent of its demand deposits plus 15 percent of its time deposits. Begin-

ning December 31, these amounts are to be raised to 40 percent and 20 percent respectively.

In order to regulate credit and maintain the stability of the currency, the Minister of the Treasury is empowered to raise or lower the required proportions of cash on hand established by the present decree if it should be absolutely necessary.

The decree further provides that the Directors of the Central Bank of Bolivia are to rediscount only those notes which correspond to cash commercial operations and which will be met in full, upon their expiration, by the payer.

From March 31 to December 31, 1945, the limit for credits granted on current accounts will be fixed at 60 percent of the capital and reserves of each bank.

Building activity in Mexico

In 1944 investments in building construction in the Federal District of Mexico increased 110 percent over 1940 figures, reaching the highest mark of the last five years. These investments in real property provided an outlet for some of the capital accrued from successful commercial operations resulting from the war. Figures on construction for the five-year period 1940-44 are as follows:

Year	Value (pesos)	Number of building permits issued
1940	75,745,650	4,440
1941	95,032,200	4,308
1942	93,492,000	4,212
1943	91,738,800	4,200
1944	159,330,560	5,761

With reference to new construction in the Federal District, it is interesting to note that a recent presidential decree broadened existing prohibitions against the use of charcoal stove equipment in all new edifices. Earlier decrees approved in 1942 and 1943 ex-

empted houses, apartments, or other dwellings that rented for less than 50 pesos a month, but study has shown that the greater percentage of charcoal consumed in the Federal District is used by occupants of such dwellings, and the new decree applies the prohibition to them also. It further provides that conversion must be made from charcoal to mineral fuel burning apparatus in already existing dwellings within a period to be fixed by the Federal District. This is, of course, a forest conservation measure.

New Peruvian port

Included in the big Peruvian industrialization program centered in Chimbote (see "Peruvian development program," BULLETIN, June 1944, p. 348) is the development of the iron-ore fields around Marcona in South Central Peru, and the construction of a modern seaport on nearby San Juan Bay. The proximity of the port will make possible the cheap shipment of the Marcona iron ore to the iron and steel mills on Chimbote Bay, some 500 miles to the north.

A new transverse highway will connect San Juan and Marcona with the Pan American Highway near Nazca, about 320 miles south of Lima. The 16-mile stretch of the highway between the ore fields and the port will be widened and heavily reenforced to bear the extra load of the 25-ton trucks transporting the ore.

Nazca is the western terminus of the transverse highway connecting the mountain and the coastal variants of the Pan American Highway south of Lima. The eastern terminus is at Cuzco. Thus the port of San Juan and the connecting highways will also provide a new outlet for the agricultural production of the rich lands in the Sierra around Cuzco.

¹ See BULLETIN, December 1944, pp. 695-697.

Uruguay's foreign trade, 1944

Uruguay ended the year 1944 with a favorable trade balance of \$25,113,000 (U.S. currency), exports having reached a total of \$97,559,000, which, although less than the record year 1943, was still a very significant figure, and imports having totaled \$72,-446,000.

Wool was the principal export commodity, accounting for 41.0 percent of the total export value. Meat and meat products, which normally occupy first place in exports, fell to second rank in 1944 with 30.5 percent of the total value. Hides and bristles, which in 1942 and 1943 comprised only approximately 3 percent of the total export value, rose to 11.4 percent in 1944.

The United States ranked first among the purchasing countries in 1944, having absorbed Uruguayan exports to a total of \$46,-538,000, or 47.7 percent of the total. These figures, however, are slightly below the \$54,-081,000 and 54.0 percent of the preceding year. Great Britain was second in the purchase of Uruguayan products in 1944 with

\$31,295,000 or 32.0 percent of the total, approximately the same amount as in the preceding year. Brazil and Argentina were the two largest Latin American markets for Uruguayan goods in 1944, having taken exports valued at \$3,392,000 and \$2,707,000, respectively, or 3.5 percent and 2.8 percent of the total. This was a reversal of their positions in 1943, when Argentina accounted for 2.5 percent and Brazil 1.8 percent of total Uruguayan exports. Venezuela, Mexico, Peru, and Ecuador together bought Uruguayan commodities totaling \$1,588,000 in value, or 1.6 percent of the total.

Comparative trade balance and export figures are shown in the following tables:

Foreign Trade

(thousands of U.S. dollars)

Year	Exports	Imports	Balance between exports and imports
1941	70,846	63,135	7,711
1942	57,775	63,662	—5,887
1943	100,022	63,807	36,215
1944	97,559	72,446	25,113

Exports, 1943 and 1944

(thousands of U.S. dollars)

Commodity	1943		1944	
	Value	Percent of total	Value	Percent of total
Meat and meat products	46,515	46.5	29,721	30.5
Wool	39,270	39.3	40,919	42.0
Hides and bristles	2,555	2.6	11,133	11.4
Agricultural products, natural and processed ..	2,644	2.6	5,972	6.1
Yarn, thread, textiles, and their manufactures ..	5,222	5.2	5,056	5.2
Mineral products	1,775	1.8	2,220	2.3
Miscellaneous manufactures	1,498	1.5	1,866	1.9
Live animals	258	0.3	487	0.5
Chemicals	41	(¹)	107	0.1
Miscellaneous	244	0.2	78	(¹)
Total	100,022	100.0	97,559	100.0

¹ Less than one-tenth of 1 percent.

Uruguay's 1944 imports, valued at \$72,-446,000, were approximately 13.5 percent

higher than the previous year's total of \$63,-807,000.

Raw materials were the largest single group of imports in 1944, accounting for \$22,199,000 or 30.7 percent of the total; these were followed by fuels and lubricants with 20.3 percent and foodstuffs, 13.5 percent.

Uruguay's principal markets for imports in 1944 were the United States, which fur-

nished 26.0 percent; Brazil, 22.2 percent, and Argentina, 12.8 percent. Other Latin American countries—Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Paraguay, Chile, Mexico, Cuba, and Colombia—together supplied a total of 19.7 percent of Uruguay's 1944 imports.

Comparative figures for 1943 and 1944 imports are given in the following table:

Imports

(thousands of U. S. dollars)

Commodity	1943		1944	
	Value	Percent of total	Value	Percent of total
Raw materials	17,944	28.1	22,199	30.7
Fuels and lubricants	14,736	23.1	14,721	20.3
Foodstuffs	8,343	13.1	9,781	13.5
General merchandise	5,811	9.1	7,612	10.5
Construction materials	5,196	8.1	7,061	9.8
General machinery and parts	2,238	3.5	1,741	2.4
Hardware	1,029	1.6	1,463	2.0
Drugs and chemicals	833	1.3	1,160	1.6
Electrical apparatus	501	0.8	883	1.2
Motor vehicles	575	0.9	843	1.2
Seeds, forage, etc.	3,475	5.5	827	1.1
Jewelry	525	0.8	740	1.0
Optical, surgical, and similar supplies	444	0.7	668	0.9
Books and paper	371	0.6	664	0.9
Motion picture, radio and musical apparatus	348	0.5	610	0.8
Toys, novelties, etc.	441	0.7	483	0.7
Live animals	516	0.8	415	0.6
Leather goods, including shoes	124	0.2	206	0.3
Miscellaneous goods	357	0.6	369	0.5
Total	63,807	100.0	72,446	100.0

Reforestation and soil conservation in Haiti

A recent decree-law in Haiti, amending previous legislation that organized the National Service of Agricultural Production and Rural Instruction, established a new Division of Water Supply and Forestry as a dependency of the aforementioned Service.

The newly created Division is charged with the supervision and administration of irrigation systems, the control of surface and subterranean water supply (irrigation, drainage, and river control), reforestation, soil

conservation, and forest protection. In view of the intimate relationship among these several fields of land, forest, and water use and conservation, the Haitian Government took this step in order to secure a greater coordination of effort and activity and, therefore, a more certain assurance of the successful development of plans and programs for solving the problems involved.

Cuban commercial agreements

Cuba is exchanging sugar for Ecuadorean rice and Argentine tallow under the terms

of two commercial agreements recently entered into by the Governments of the respective countries.

The first of the two agreements provides that Ecuador will make available to Cuba, at fixed prices, up to 37,500 tons of rice of the past and current crops. The Government of Ecuador has agreed to facilitate and control shipping space and shipments will be made through September 1945. In return Cuba will supply Ecuador with 10,000 tons of refined sugar, also at a fixed price.

The second agreement provides for the supply by Cuba of 20,000 tons of sugar to Argentina, which in return will ship tallow to Cuba for the manufacture of soap. Stocks of this latter commodity have recently been far below requirements in Cuba, a situation which the Argentine tallow will help considerably to relieve.

Mexican industrial center

In the town of Monclova, State of Coahuila, Mexico, a new industrial center is rising. The first blast furnace went into operation there in June 1944. The steel company to which the furnace belongs has a capital, entirely Mexican, of 45,000,000 pesos. A little later an iron tube factory opened its doors; this factory is now in full production and is making regular shipments of its product. In October 1944 two more plants were inaugurated, one with furnaces for steel and the other a rolling mill. The latter is producing plates and sheets of good quality for military and railway construction, as well as for various other uses.

Several other industries are now in the process of installation at Monclova. Among them are a chlorine plant; a factory for the manufacture of construction materials, bricks, tile pipe, etc.; a bottling works; and finally, a tin plant with a capital of 15,000,000 pesos. The tin plant, which will pro-

duce only tin and thin plate, is expected to begin operations about the middle of 1945.

Electrification in Mexico

Another step forward was accomplished in Mexico's electrification program¹ with the opening on November 11, 1944, of the hydroelectric plant at Zumpimito, State of Michoacán. The first unit of this plant has a capacity of 1,500 H.P.; remaining units, for which Mexico has not yet been able to secure equipment because of the war, will provide an additional 8,000 H.P. The new plant, which is interconnected with other systems already operating in Michoacán, supplies electricity to the area in and about Uruapan, Paracho, Nueva Italia, Lombardía, and Parácuaro, and it is estimated that its benefits reach more than 150,000 residents in that region.

Bond issue for public works in Uruguay

The Congress of Uruguay approved a law on December 20, 1944, authorizing the issuance of bonds in the sum of 70,000,000 pesos¹ to finance a five-year public works program. The bonds will draw interest of 5 percent per year, payable quarterly, and the proceeds, to be made available at the rate of 14,000,000 pesos a year for five years, will be used as follows: 40,000,000 pesos for a highway program and 30,000,000 for port and irrigation works, construction of military and other public buildings, reforestation and soil erosion control, and a water supply system and equipment for the Geological Institute of Uruguay.

To finance the highway share of the new debt, a special highway treasury account is

¹The exchange value of the Uruguayan peso is \$0.52 U.S.

established, to which the proceeds of several specified taxes—gasoline, fuel oil, motor vehicle, rural property, and others—are allocated. The other portion of the debt will be serviced from general revenues, to which the proceeds of certain additional gasoline taxes are allocated for that specific purpose, as well as other special funds.

The law authorizing the bond issue also outlined in detail the various projects for which the funds will be used.

Peruvian steamship company

Peru's merchant shipping has taken great strides forward in the past five years, since the reorganization of the Compañía Peruana de Vapores, now a state corporation whose vessels have played an important part in bringing vital supplies to the country.

At the end of 1940, the Company's records listed a total of 53 voyages, 50 along the Peruvian coast and 3 to Iquitos. In 1943, the total number of voyages was 88, of which 34 were made to foreign countries. In 1944 the number of foreign voyages fell off to 18, but the grand total of trips was 194.

Along the coasts of Peru two Company vessels, the *Mantaro* and the *Urubamba*, transport each year an increasingly large number of passengers. In voyages abroad, however, most of the ships' space is given over to cargo. Foodstuffs represent 90 percent of the cargo which they bring back. Their transporting of Argentine wheat at a very low freight charge has been instrumental in maintaining the level of wheat flour and bread prices in Peru. And Company shipping alone has supplied the country with 50 percent of the wheat needed.

The activities of the Company have expanded to include shipbuilding and repairing. Its fleet has also been sizably increased

with the expropriation by the government of a number of vessels to be used specifically for the transportation of essential supplies. The cargo capacity of Company shipping, which in 1940 was 22,000 tons, is now 41,571 tons.

Guatemala attacks illiteracy

To provide a firm foundation for the government's new structure of democracy, Guatemala is embarking upon a four- to six-years' campaign against illiteracy. The new literacy law, signed by the Revolutionary Junta only a few days before President Arévalo took office under the progressive new constitution of March 1945, calls upon every Guatemalan who enjoys the privilege of literacy to discharge the obligation involved in that privilege by teaching one illiterate Guatemalan to read and write.

This man-to-man approach is patterned after the Mexican literacy law of August 1944, and includes the same provision for supervision and assistance through the school system. Instruction cards planned for the purpose by the Department of Education furnish the amateur teacher with tools for his unaccustomed task. Public school teachers will not only oversee the assignment of pupils at the beginning and the checking up of results at the end but they will also be ready with explanations and guidance while the labor of instruction is going on. For that purpose they are to set aside one hour in every day when they will receive in their respective schoolrooms all who come to ask for help and advice.

In order to approach this difficult undertaking by stages, the plan arranges for a preliminary period of teaching and registration in Guatemala City, so that methods can be tried out in practice. Then the reading and writing lessons will be carried into the

outlying towns and villages, where Spanish is spoken although illiteracy is high; and later to the Indians, for whom a special series of bilingual instruction cards is being prepared. The final phase of the campaign will consist of a thorough tabulation of results.

Penalties will enforce the law, and awards of merit, from gold medals down, will stimulate efforts and achievements beyond what is required. Guatemala's literacy law is even more comprehensive than Mexico's, for while Mexico limits instruction to illiterates between the ages of 7 and 40, Guatemala sets no upper age limit. Both laws place the obligation to do the teaching upon all literate men and women between the ages of 18 and 60 except where special exemptions are made.

Changes in Costa Rican school administration

Costa Rica's school law was modified this year by several pages of new and amended provisions published in *La Gaceta* of February 21, 1945. Except for the tightening of compulsory education requirements, most of the more important changes concern the organization of secondary schools.

Primary education is compulsory in Costa Rica for children between the ages of 7 or 8 and 14; but until this year parents who did not wish to send their children to public school might send them to any private school at all, or might arrange to have the children taught at home. The 1945 law requires all children of primary school age to attend school. That school must be either a public school or an authorized private school. If more children go to school, more teachers will be needed, and the need will probably be more acute in the less attractive rural districts. The law attacks this difficulty by requiring three years' rural service

of all graduates of the School of Education who have been assisted by state scholarships; locations for the service are to be assigned by the Department of Public Education.

Secondary education in Costa Rica will no longer be reserved for the well-to-do. The school law of 1945 provides that matriculation and tuition in the government's secondary schools shall be free to all students whose parents or guardians own no other property than the house in which they live.

Problems of student responsibility have been especially considered in the new law. Each secondary school in the national school system is to have a student association of which every student is a member. This student association, through a governing board composed of one representative for each of the six years of the secondary school course, is to deal with matters of student rights and obligations; it will have oversight of school sports and school publications, and arrange for election of a section chairman by the students of each section. The president and vice president of the student association will also be voting members of the teachers' council, which discusses and acts upon questions of school policy; and they will be under the same obligation as the teachers to say nothing about what goes on in the council meetings.

Section teachers in charge of personal guidance of students were formerly appointed by the principal. Under the new law these section teachers are to be elected by the students themselves, voting in secret ballot. With the school principal and secretary, and the section chairmen elected by the students, these elected teachers are to constitute a committee charged with fixing the conduct rating which appears on each student's report, and which was formerly fixed by the teachers' council. Conduct marks are expected to give a general estimate of behavior, out of school as well as in.

Scholarships for Indian students in Panama

Nine Indian students of the San Blas region in Panama were granted scholarships by the Government to enable them to study in the Juan Demóstenes Arosemena Normal School at Santiago de Veraguas.

Because of the remoteness of San Blas and the lack of adequate transportation, it had long been difficult to secure teachers for the schools. The Indian head of the region therefore personally appealed to the Government to give the scholarships, in order to train teachers native to the district. The scholarships were made available, under the condition that the recipients on completing their teacher training would follow their profession in their home region.

Reorganization of higher education in Haiti

Higher education in Haiti was organized on new bases and the University of Haiti reorganized by Decree-Law No. 469, approved December 27, 1944, which coordinated previous legislation on the subject.

Briefly summarized, the new decree-law places the University of Haiti under control of the Secretary of State for Public Instruction. Its administration will be in charge of a University Council, composed of the rector, the deans of the various schools, and the directors of affiliated higher education institutes or schools. To assure satisfactory liaison between the University and the Department of Public Instruction, the Secretary of State for Public Instruction will be assisted by an Advisory Council composed of the members of the University Council and the Directors of Urban Instruction, Rural Instruction, and the General Hospital. The rector, deans, and faculty members of the University will be named by the President of

the Republic according to procedures prescribed by the decree-law. Titular professors and faculty members of the School of Medicine may at the same time function as chiefs or assistant chiefs of clinics or laboratories of the General Hospital.

Higher education will also be offered in private schools and in special schools functioning outside the University but organized by the State or under State auspices (military schools, seminaries, etc.). Schools of this type are placed under the control of the Department of Public Instruction and they must obtain licenses from the Secretary of State for Public Instruction. Provision is made for their affiliation with the University in certain cases.

At approximately the time when this reorganization legislation was approved, the Department of Public Instruction announced a competition for plans for a university center. The specifications call for plans for four buildings: a combination dining hall and dormitory, a library, an auditorium with seating capacity for 700 persons, and an administration building. The total cost of the new buildings must be within a range of \$60,000 to \$80,000, and the Department of Public Instruction asked that in their plans contestants take into consideration the future enlargement of the various buildings, with the exception of the auditorium. First and second prizes of \$400 and \$200, respectively, were offered for the two best sets of plans.

Union catalogue for National Library of Uruguay

As a part of the reorganization of the general administration and cataloguing system now in process in the National Library of Uruguay, work is progressing on the establishment of a union catalogue. The National Library itself has approximately 200,000

volumes, while in branch libraries in the interior of the Republic some 150,000 more will be located.

A number of years ago branches of the National Library were planned for departmental capitals and several hundred volumes of books were dispatched to various towns. In the majority of places, however, no suitable library locations were available and the books lay untouched in their packing cases. Now the Government, in cooperation with departmental authorities, is taking positive action in the matter and during the year 1945 branch libraries are expected to be opened for use in the following cities of the interior: Canelones, Trinidad, Maldonado, Dolores, Pan de Azúcar, Bella Unión, Aiguá, Rio Branco, Pirarajá, Vergara, Castillos, and Lascano. This prospective scattering of books motivated the National Library's decision to set up the union catalogue of all books available to readers throughout the Republic.

Colombian labor law

Working hours, paid vacations, and the right to organize in industrial or craft unions are protected by Colombia's labor law, passed by Congress in February 1945. No police powers may be exercised by employers, and they may have no share in the selection or support of local police. All corporal punishment is forbidden. A system of local and regional courts, with provision for appeals to a Supreme Labor Tribunal, is to have jurisdiction in labor disputes; each tribunal is to include representatives of labor, of employers, and of the national government.

The standard eight-hour day and 48-hour week become a nine-hour day and 54-hour week in the case of farm workers, and a six-hour day for night work or work injurious to health. The law provides for special dis-

penations at harvest time and in time of danger or emergency. Other overtime work is limited to four hours a day. Workers are to be paid for a yearly vacation of two weeks. Domestic workers, as so often happens, are excluded from most of these benefits, but the law does require that they be provided with medical services and that their wages be continued during sickness, with certain time limits; also their necessary burial expenses are to be covered in case of death in service.

In consultation with representatives of capital and of labor the government is empowered to set up minimum wage standards, to be adapted to local conditions, living costs, kinds of work, and abilities and output of individual workers. A policy of equal pay for equal work is stated in the following provision:

Wage differences for workers doing equivalent work for the same employer shall be based only on grounds of individual ability, of seniority or experience, of family responsibilities, or of output, and in no case on differences of nationality, sex, age, religion, political opinion, or union activity.

Farmers Union in Ecuador

A new consumers and producers cooperative called the *Unión Campesina* (Farmers Union) was recently formed in Riobamba, Province of Chimborazo, Ecuador, which will undertake the effective organization of the agriculture of the province along lines directed toward its progress and the elimination of commercial and political speculation or other obstacles to its desired development. The cooperative will be a strictly non-profit organization, with all of its resources being reinvested in services and loans to members. Everyone in the province engaged in agricultural activities of any kind is eligible to membership.

Publications of the Pan American Union, January-June 1945

Books, pamphlets, and leaflets on a variety of subjects are edited by the different offices and divisions of the Pan American Union. They offer useful material to the student and to the teacher in the Pan American field, and make available to interested groups and individuals the technical information developed through various phases of Pan American cooperation.

The following Pan American Union publications appeared during the first six months of 1945:

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY:

Book Stores and Publishers in Latin America, No. 2, Part 3, revised. \$0.25.

Index to Publications and Articles on Latin America Issued by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1902-1943, prepared by Eugene D. Owen, Ph. D. No. 31 in the Bibliographic Series. \$0.25.

Selected List of Books (in English) on Latin America, No. 4. \$0.25.

COUNSELOR'S OFFICE:

Handbook for the Use of the Delegates to the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace—English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions.

Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace. Report Submitted to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union by the Director General.—English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions. \$.50.

Pan American Day Material—

1. *Pan American Day*.
2. *The Geographical Unity of the Americas*—English, Spanish*, and Portuguese editions.
3. *The Interdependence of the Americas*—English, Spanish*, and Portuguese* editions.
4. *The Inter-American System*—English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions.
5. *Anthology of Latin American Literature*—English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions.

9. *Mr. Whimple Meets the Heroes*. A play suitable for junior and senior high school groups, based on the names of Latin American heroes selected for Liberty Ships—English*, Spanish, and Portuguese editions.

10. *Life of Benito Juárez*, by Germaine Baer. A play suitable for high school groups.

11. *Our Pan American Heroes*. A play for boys suitable for elementary and junior high schools, based on a visit to the Pan American Union in Washington. Adapted from a play by Edna Randolph Worrell.

Pan American Day pamphlets are distributed free to teachers or group leaders, but only one copy of each item will be sent to the same address.

DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION:

Manual de Alimentación del Ganado, by Jorge de Alba, in the Spanish Series on Agriculture. \$0.15.

Agriculture in Nicaragua, by José M. Zelaya, Minister of Agriculture of Nicaragua, in the English Series on Agriculture. \$0.15.

Brief History and Progress Report of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, April 1945.

Progress Report of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, May 1, 1945.

Informe General sobre Cumplimiento de las Resoluciones de la Segunda Conferencia Interamericana de Agricultura, First and Second Parts. \$0.25 each.

DIVISION OF ECONOMIC INFORMATION AND STATISTICS:

Commercial Pan America

English and Spanish editions of the November-December 1944 number—

Ecuador—A Statistical Abstract. \$0.20.

English and Spanish editions of the January-February 1945 number—

The International Trade of Chile, 1940-1944. \$0.20.

English and Spanish editions of the March-April 1945 number—

Economic Survey of Latin America, Part II, South American Republics, Section 1, Argentina-Bolivia-Uruguay. \$0.20.

English and Spanish editions of the May 1945 number—

Brazilian Fuel and Power. \$0.10.

* No more copies available.

English and Spanish editions of the June 1945 number—

The International Trade of Colombia, 1940-1944. \$0.10.

DIVISION OF INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION:

Higher Education in Latin America, Volume III, Colombia, by Katherine Lenore Morgan. \$0.50.

*Lectura para Maestros.*¹ No. 17.

*Leitura para Educadores.*² No. 10.

*L'Orientation Professionnelle,*³ in the French Education Series.

*La Santé par l'Ecole,*³ in the French Education Series.

*Educação para uma Sociedade Livre,*² No. 83 in the Portuguese Education Series.

Latin American Costumes: Bibliographical References, Sources of Costume Dolls, and Illustrations. Revised edition. \$0.10.

Latin American Literature in English Translation. Mimeographed list. Revised edition.

The Exchange of Students between the United States and Latin America. Mimeographed leaflet. Revised.

DIVISION OF SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS:

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EDITORIAL DIVISION:

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION—

English, Spanish, and Portuguese editions, January through June 1945. These editions are not parallel, except for some official matter.

JURIDICAL DIVISION:

Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions, with text in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French. Revised to January 1, 1945.

The Pan American Union and Comparative Law Studies in America. Paper presented at the First Meeting of the Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law by Manuel S. Canyes—Spanish and English editions.

Principios Fundamentales de Derecho Internacional. Texto de la Convención, de las Declaraciones y del Proyecto que serán tomados en

cuenta para la elaboración de la "Declaración de Derechos y Deberes de los Estados" que figurará como anexo al pacto constitutivo destinado a mejorar y fortalecer el Sistema Interamericano.

Improvement and Coordination of Inter-American Peace Instruments, Volume IV. Text of the Draft Treaty on the Establishment of an Association of American Nations submitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States. \$0.25.

MUSIC DIVISION:

Music Education in 14 American Republics, by Vanett Lawler, No. 12 in the Music Series—English and Spanish editions. \$0.50.

STAMP SECTION:

Who's Who on the Postage Stamps of the Dominican Republic, by Albert F. Kunze, No. 8 in the Philatelic Who's Who Series. \$0.10.

We see by the papers—

- Early in April 1945 Air Squadron 201 of the Mexican Army left the United States for a Pacific base to participate in the battle against the Japanese. The approximately 300 men comprising the Squadron had been training at United States aviation schools since July 1944. With the departure of this Air Squadron, Mexico became the second Latin American nation to send a force into action in the present war. Brazil sent troops in July 1944 to fight in Italy.

- "Brazil," in the words of *The New York Times*, "has the distinction of being the first country to make a cash payment for materials received under Lend-Lease." The \$35,000,000 installment paid in April is the first under a plan which will completely wipe out Brazilian Lend-Lease obligations by about 1952.

- In Bogotá, Colombia, the working man's living costs increased 18.7 percent during the year 1944.

- A branch railroad line is now operating in Argentina between Pedro Vargas and Ma-

¹ Distribution limited to Spanish American countries.

² Distribution limited to Brazil.

³ Distribution limited to Haiti.

largué, a distance of about 110 miles. It is the first Argentine railroad to be constructed primarily for the purpose of transporting coal from the mines.

- In Santiago, *Chile*, living costs increased 19.4 percent in 1944, and wholesale prices 9.7 percent.

- *Guatemala* has abolished as of April 1, 1945 the monopoly on the manufacture and sale of salt.

- Twenty-three *Nicaraguan* nurses received their diplomas when the Nicaragua Nursing School held its first graduation exercises in December 1944.

- More than 17,000,000 grams of fine gold and 6,000,000 grams of fine silver, valued jointly at \$19,181,000, were produced in *Colombia* in 1944. The Province of Antioquia supplied approximately 60 percent of each.

- Building in *Buenos Aires* in 1944 covered an area of 29,257,000 square feet, an increase of nearly 60 percent over the figures for 1943.

- A speaker at a recent Rotary Club meeting in Tegucigalpa brought samples of *Honduran* coal, iron, copper, manganese, antimony, graphite, mica, and kaolin.

- *Argentina* is increasing its production of raw silk, having raised 110,000 pounds of cocoons in 1944-45 against 17,000 pounds in 1943.

- A handsome new Supreme Court building has been opened in Ciudad Trujillo, *Dominican Republic*.

- Mr. Sidney W. Wilcox, Chief Statistician of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the *United States* Department of Labor, has been loaned to the Government of *Panama*

to act as Director General of Statistics and the Census.

- Five loaded trucks made the journey from Buenaventura to Cali in January, bringing the first cargo ever moved inland over the whole length of *Colombia's* long-awaited Highway to the Sea.

- Traction systems in three *Chilean* cities, Santiago, Valparaíso, and San Bernardo, are being transferred to Chilean government ownership by the American and Foreign Power Company under a sale agreement approved in February by the Chamber of Deputies. They had been under government operation since the strike of 1941. In addition to the cash payment, the American company receives preferred stock representing a 40 percent interest in the newly organized transportation company through which the government will operate the three systems.

- A drought in *Argentina* has severely cut the prospects for cereal and linseed production this year. The second official crop estimate anticipated that the wheat crop would be about a third less than last year, linseed about a half, and barley and rye considerably reduced. The production of oats was expected to rise somewhat. The corn crop was considered fair to good in some parts of the country, but in the north and northwest the drought is thought to have reduced the yield by 60 to 80 percent of the area sown, which was 10 percent less than that in 1944.

- After prolonged study of the problems involved, the *Argentine* Government's Housing Council will soon begin putting into execution a vast 20-year program of low-cost housing construction. The total cost is expected to be around 4,000,000,000 pesos, to be raised by bond issues.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Annual subscription rates in all countries of the Pan American Union: English edition, \$1.50; Spanish edition, \$1.00; Portuguese edition, \$1.00; single copies, any edition, 15 cents each (prior to 1935, 25 cents each). An additional charge of 75 cents per year is made on each edition for subscriptions in countries outside the Pan American Union

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MUSIC SERIES

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its

affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments. After November 1, 1945 the members of the Board will be appointed *ad hoc* by the respective governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



ВИА УМЕРЩА ИМОН

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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: GALLERY OF HEROES, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Secretariat Photo

UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The subject of regional arrangements was one of the most important to come before the Conference.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 8



AUGUST 1945

Regional Arrangements and the United Nations¹

L. S. ROWE

Director General of the Pan American Union

AS SOON AS the decision was reached to convene the United Nations Conference on International Organization, which met at San Francisco from April 25 to June 26, 1945, it became evident that one of the most important problems confronting it would be the position of such regional organizations as the Pan American Union.

Almost simultaneously with the organization of the Conference, the question of the status of regional organizations moved into the foreground of attention and dominated the discussions during the first three weeks. It soon became evident that there would be a struggle within the Conference between those who advocated highly centralized authority in the world organization and those

who favored granting regional organizations an important field of action in safeguarding security and in preserving peace.

The deliberations of the Committee on Regional Arrangements (Committee 4 of Commission III) were carried on under the chairmanship of His Excellency Señor Alberto Lleras Camargo, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia and Chairman of the Colombian Delegation.

Its functions were to prepare and recommend to Commission III draft provisions for the Charter of the United Nations relating to matters dealt with in Chapter VIII, Section C (Regional Arrangements), of the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals and relating to the comments and suggestions relevant thereto submitted by the governments participating in the Conference.

In order to facilitate the work of the Committee, a Subcommittee was appointed

¹For a more detailed discussion of the subject, see the Report submitted by the Director General to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Congress and Conference Series No. 48.

at the suggestion of the Chairman to analyze, classify and, where possible, amalgamate the amendments submitted by the various Delegations that dealt with matters within the purview of Committee 4 of Commission III. The membership of the Subcommittee, which was to work with the Chairman and Rapporteur of the Committee, was composed of representatives of the following Delegations: Australia, Chile, Czechoslovakia, Egypt, France, Mexico, Norway, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America.

The question of coordinating regional arrangements within the framework of the United Nations Organization proved to be one of the most difficult problems of the Conference. The majority of the Latin American delegations expressed the view that the inter-American system for the maintenance of peace should not be subject to Security Council control and veto powers. The delegations of Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Peru submitted a joint draft amendment to Chapter VIII, Section C, of the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals, in which they specifically declared that the Pan American system should continue to function autonomously; the Security Council, however, would be permanently and fully informed concerning the activities of the regional system.

The Australian Delegation, while in favor of regional defense systems, held the view that these systems should operate directly under the Security Council of the World Organization and not independently of it, in order to maintain an over-all authority.

Three possible solutions of the problem were outlined by the Chairman of the Committee: 1) Intervention by the World Security Council in all regional settlements; 2) limited intervention or supervision by the Security Council in regional arrangements,

and 3) no intervention by the Security Council in any regional settlement.

The question before the Subcommittee therefore was how to find the connecting link between the international organization on the one hand, and regional arrangements—present and future—on the other.

A compromise plan was finally reached which amalgamated and reconciled about 16 proposals, particularly the Australian amendment, the Latin American viewpoint, and the viewpoint of the countries having mutual assistance treaties. The text was studied by the Subcommittee in three sessions and was then submitted to the fourth meeting of the Committee and approved by the latter on May 23, 1945. Additions were made to two paragraphs of the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals, a new paragraph was drafted, and a fourth was approved as it stood in the Proposals. With minor changes in phraseology, these were all accepted by the Conference as parts of the Charter of the United Nations.

Additions made by the Committee to the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals are indicated in italics in the several paragraphs below.

CHAPTER VIII

SECTION A

3. The parties to any dispute, the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, should obligate themselves, first of all, to seek a solution by negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, *resort to regional agencies or arrangements*, or other peaceful means of their own choice. The Security Council should call upon the parties to settle their dispute by such means.

The text as it was adopted in the Charter of the United Nations follows:

ARTICLE 33

1. The parties to any dispute, the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, shall, first of

all, seek a solution by negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice.

2. The Security Council shall, when it deems necessary, call upon the parties to settle their dispute by such means.

Under this plan the settlement of disputes by regional agencies or arrangements is put on a par with other means of pacific settlement. The Committee on Regional Arrangements agreed to transfer this article to the respective committee for incorporation in Chapter VI, Pacific Settlement of Disputes. It is the first article in this chapter.

The Committee on Regional Arrangements suggested the inclusion in the Charter of the following:

CHAPTER VIII

SECTION B

12. [New paragraph.] *Nothing in this Charter impairs the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs against a member state, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken in the exercise of this right of self-defense shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of the Security Council under this Charter to take at any time such action as it may deem necessary in order to maintain or restore international peace and security.*

Slightly edited, this paragraph appears as follows in the Charter:

ARTICLE 51

Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by members in the exercise of this right of self-defense shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of the Security Council under the present Charter to take at any time such action as it deems necessary in order

to maintain or restore international peace and security.

This new paragraph is regarded as a vital part of the Charter; its purpose is to enable parties to meet any attack until the United Nations Organization can act. It closes Chapter VII, Action with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace, and Acts of Aggression.

The third suggestion of the Committee on Regional Arrangements is shown below:

CHAPTER VIII

SECTION C

1. Nothing in the Charter should preclude the existence of regional arrangements or agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action, provided such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the purpose and principles of the Organization. *The member states comprising such agencies or entering into such arrangements should make every effort to achieve peaceful settlement of local disputes through such agencies or arrangements before referring them to the Security Council.* The Security Council should encourage the development of peaceful settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the Security Council.

This paragraph in no way impairs the application of paragraphs 1 and 2 of Section A of this chapter.

In the Charter this paragraph begins Chapter VIII, Regional Arrangements, and reads:

ARTICLE 52

1. Nothing in the present Charter precludes the existence of regional arrangements or agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action, provided that such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations.

2. The Members of the United Nations entering into such arrangements or constituting such agencies shall make every effort to achieve pacific

settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies before referring them to the Security Council.

3. The Security Council shall encourage the development of pacific settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the Security Council.

4. This article in no way impairs the application of articles 34 and 35.²

At the same meeting on May 23, the Committee on Regional Arrangements agreed unanimously to retain in the form originally drafted the language of Chapter VIII, Section C, Paragraph 3 of the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals, now Article 54 of the Charter under Chapter VIII. In the final form the fourth word was changed from *should* to *shall*. This reads:

ARTICLE 54

The Security Council shall at all times be kept fully informed of activities undertaken or in contemplation under regional arrangements or by regional agencies for the maintenance of international peace and security.

If a summary is made of the principles embodied in the paragraphs above transcribed, the following conclusions may be drawn:

² *These articles read as follows:*

ARTICLE 34

The Security Council may investigate any dispute, or any situation which might lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute, in order to determine whether the continuance of the dispute or situation is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security.

ARTICLE 35

1. Any Member of the United Nations may bring any dispute, or any situation of the nature referred to in Article 34, to the attention of the Security Council or of the General Assembly.

2. A state which is not a Member of the United Nations may bring to the attention of the Security Council or of the General Assembly any dispute to which it is a party if it accepts in advance, for the purposes of the dispute, the obligations of pacific settlement provided in the present Charter.

3. The proceedings of the General Assembly in respect of matters brought to its attention under this article will be subject to the provisions of Articles 11 and 12.

1. Upon regional agencies or arrangements rests the primary responsibility to seek a pacific settlement of disputes before they are referred to the Security Council. In fact, the Security Council is expected to encourage the solution of local disputes through regional arrangements or by regional agencies, either on the initiative of the States concerned or by reference from the Council.

2. The foregoing provision, however, is subject to two limitations: (a) the Security Council may investigate any dispute, or any situation which may lead to international friction or give rise to a dispute, and (b) any State whether a Member of the International Organization or not, may bring any such dispute or situation to the attention of the General Assembly or of the Security Council. The jurisdiction of the Council within these limitations, however, has been construed to extend only to the *investigation* of a question, and not to the replacement or duplication of the efforts of the regional agency in seeking a peaceful settlement.

3. The right of any group of nations to enter into agreements for self-defense is recognized. Consequently, the Act of Chapultepec signed March 8, 1945, at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, or the treaty that may be concluded to convert this wartime measure into a peacetime agreement, is entirely in harmony with the World Charter.

4. Should any nation party to such a defense agreement be attacked, the other contracting States may carry out their obligations to join in its defense, as an emergency measure and until the Security Council has taken the steps necessary to maintain international peace and security.

5. The Security Council retains the right to intervene directly whenever it may deem it necessary in order to maintain or restore

international peace and security. Action by the Security Council, however, in connection with the investigation of a dispute or the use of force, may be prevented if one of the permanent members exercises its veto power. This veto power does not extend to discussion in the Council or to the preliminary phase of peaceful settlement. If a permanent member is a party to a dispute, such member must refrain from voting in any action of the Council directed towards peaceful settlement. In such a case the permanent member can exercise its veto power only with regard to the application of sanctions and enforcement measures directed against it.

With reference to the right of a nation or a group of nations to enter into agreements for self-defense, the Secretary of State of the United States informed the Latin American delegates at San Francisco on May 15, 1945 that it was the intention of the United States Government to invite the other American Republics to undertake in the near future the negotiation of a treaty which, as provided for in the Act of Chapultepec itself, would be consistent with the Charter of the United Nations and would support and strengthen that organization, while at the same time advancing the development of the historic system of inter-American cooperation.

The full text of the chapter on regional arrangements in the Charter of the United Nations is as follows:

CHAPTER VIII

REGIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

ARTICLE 52

1. Nothing in the present Charter precludes the existence of regional arrangements or agencies

for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action, provided that such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations.

2. The Members of the United Nations entering into such arrangements or constituting such agencies shall make every effort to achieve pacific settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies before referring them to the Security Council.

3. The Security Council shall encourage the development of pacific settlement of local disputes through such regional arrangements or by such regional agencies either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the Security Council.

4. This article in no way impairs the application of Articles 34 and 35.²

ARTICLE 53

1. The Security Council shall, where appropriate, utilize such regional arrangements or agencies for enforcement action under its authority. But no enforcement action shall be taken under regional arrangements or by regional agencies without the authorization of the Security Council, with the exception of measures against any enemy state, as defined in paragraph 2 of this Article, provided for pursuant to Article 107 or in regional arrangements directed against renewal of aggressive policy on the part of any such state, until such time as the Organization may, on request of the Governments concerned, be charged with the responsibility for preventing further aggression by such a state.

2. The term enemy state as used in paragraph 1 of this Article applies to any state which during the Second World War has been an enemy of any signatory of the present Charter.

ARTICLE 54

The Security Council shall at all times be kept fully informed of activities undertaken or in contemplation under regional arrangements or by regional agencies for the maintenance of international peace and security.

²See footnote, p. 432.

Cooperative Educational Program of the Office of Inter-American Affairs

KENNETH HOLLAND

Director, Division of Education, Office of Inter-American Affairs

EDUCATORS in the Americas have for many years seen the necessity of working together to solve common problems. Several recent inter-American conferences, and also the Conference of Central American Ministers of Education (1942), and the Conference of Ministers and Directors of Education of the American Republics (1943) have adopted resolutions proposing cooperative action to improve and strengthen educational facilities throughout the hemisphere.

In order to give these resolutions reality, the Office of Inter-American Affairs on October 14, 1943 established the Inter-American Educational Foundation, Inc., which collaborates with the Ministries of Education of the American republics in the development of improved educational facilities.

The development of closer educational relations among the Americas has been an integral part of the work of the Office of Inter-American Affairs since its establishment in August 1940. Wallace K. Harrison, who was appointed Director of this Office in December 1944, formerly served as Assistant Coordinator in charge of various phases of the Office's activities, of which the educational program was an important part. The Educational Foundation was established because it was realized that one of the most real and lasting bases for inter-American understanding is the attainment of improved educational opportunities and the raising of standards of living throughout the hemisphere.

The purpose of the Foundation has been stated as: "The development of cooperative educational programs with the other American republics that will emphasize the improvement of elementary, secondary, and normal schools; health and vocational education, especially in rural areas; and community centered schools." The over-all objectives are:

1. To cement inter-American relations upon a basis of the fullest mutual understanding among all the peoples of the hemisphere through educational programs founded on cooperative agreements adapted to the needs of the countries participating.

2. To raise the general levels of education, literacy, and living standards in all of the American republics, with the specific objective of developing a more enlightened public opinion which will be an important factor in the exclusion of totalitarianism from the hemisphere.

3. To provide healthy, well-trained workers and technicians for the rapidly expanding industrial enterprises of the other republics of the hemisphere. Greatest emphasis will be placed on the training of nationals of the various countries as teachers and supervisors to carry on the work initiated by the Foundation. In these teacher-training programs considerable stress will be placed on the training of teachers of rural education, health education, and vocational education. This, however, should not be construed to mean that the training of other types of teachers will be overlooked or minimized.

4. To develop instructional and other types of materials needed to make the program as a whole a success. In carrying out this objective, insofar as possible, materials will be prepared in the country where they are to be used so that they will satisfy local needs.

All programs participated in by the Foun-



O.I.A.A.

THE COLEGIO SAN BARTOLOMÉ, BOGOTÁ

The new building of an old secondary school for boys operated by a religious order.

dation will be cooperative, with each government contributing its proportionate share in funds, materials, and personnel. While it is difficult to generalize about the kind of education that prevails in the different countries of the hemisphere, in general it may be said that education in the other Americas has a cultural and classical emphasis, whereas in the United States technical and scientific training is stressed.

The Foundation, with these factors in mind, will seek to supplement and enrich the curricula of the various countries through the development of new teaching materials, the improvement of methods of teaching, and the integration of technical and scientific courses into the programs of study, so that well-rounded and integrated programs adapted to the needs of the individual countries will result. It is our hope that

these programs will help students to achieve a healthful and meaningful life, and to earn a livelihood. It is also hoped that our experiences in these countries, where the study of the humanities and the art of enjoyable living have been so highly developed, will have a beneficial influence on the educational process in our own country. The Foundation is thoroughly convinced that all of the Americas can contribute to education in the entire hemisphere.

A phase of education that will receive special emphasis is the community school idea. A community school is one that operates as an educational center for children and adults; utilizes the resources of the community to invigorate the curriculum, which should be based on a study of community structure, processes and problems; improves the community through participation in its

activities; and coordinates the educational efforts of the community. Such a school serves as a full-time educational center for the whole community, centers its curriculum in the community and not on a series of textbooks, helps in solving community problems, and seeks to coordinate all community educational resources and agencies.

This concept of education is not new in Latin America, but is rather a rediscovery of an age-old idea that first was introduced by the Spanish and Portuguese missionaries of the various Catholic orders in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. The frontier missions of that era were also vocational and industrial schools that sought to utilize the human and natural resources of a given environment for the purpose of providing a better way of life for the peoples living in the vicinity. The modern Mexican Cultural Mission is an adaptation of the frontier mission, and the community school concept as it has developed in the United States has been greatly influenced by the example of the cultural missions. Thus, the Foundation also is seeking to stimulate the re-development of an educational program that once was prevalent throughout Latin America.

Since all intelligent action programs must be preceded by and related to information made available by the use of investigatory techniques, the first step in the planning of a specific program is the collection and interpretation of data on the educational, economic, social and political conditions in the country in which the program is to operate. With this information available a special representative of the Foundation is sent to the country in question to discuss with the Minister of Education the broad phases of the program and the amount of money, personnel, and materials, to be supplied by each country. When the project has received the required approval the

United States Ambassador in the country concerned is notified and he exchanges notes with the Minister of Foreign Affairs which indicate that the governments concerned approve of the general idea of the plan. The detailed program agreed upon is then put into a memorandum which is signed by our representative and the Minister of Education.

After the signing of the memorandum of agreement a qualified United States educator acceptable to the Minister of Education is sent to the other country to inaugurate the program. As a rule this individual is known as chief of party or representative of the Inter-American Educational Foundation. Before leaving the United States he is given a short, intensive, and individually oriented course of instruction designed to prepare him both factually and psychologically for the work to be undertaken. After arriving in the country to which he is assigned, he usually spends the first few weeks studying the local situation and conferring with educators. At the end of this time a plan of operations suggesting the specific emphasis and phases of the program to be carried out is approved by the Minister of Education and the representative of the Foundation. This plan then results in inauguration of the program and the supplying of the necessary personnel. In general, the program provides for (1) the sending of United States educators to the other Americas, (2) the bringing of Latin American educators to the United States, and (3) the development of teaching materials.

The Foundation is now carrying on educational activities in all twenty of the other American republics. In eleven countries (Chile, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Haiti, Honduras, El Salvador, and Nicaragua) full-scale agreements have been ratified whereby the governments of those countries have appropri-

ated sums amounting to approximately seventy percent of the Foundation's contribution. The governments of four other countries (Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Panama, and Uruguay) have officially indicated their desire to participate in the program and consultations are in progress between each of these governments and the Foundation. Special programs of a less comprehensive nature have been developed in Argentina, Colombia, and Cuba.

United States businessmen are interested in these programs and many of them are convinced that these projects are making a most important contribution to the improvement of hemisphere trade relations. This point of view is very clearly stated in an extract from a letter addressed to the writer by the president of the American Chamber of Commerce for Brazil:

At the regular meeting yesterday of the Board of Directors of this Chamber, the excellent work of the Office of Inter-American Affairs was again brought to the attention of the Board, and particularly that concerning the Vocational Education Program between Brazil and the United States, which, we understand, is sponsored by your office.

The Board is well informed regarding the project of taking directors of Brazilian vocational schools to the United States for the purpose of instruction and of bringing American vocational technicians to Brazil for the purpose of assisting in the establishment of vocational schools in Brazil. It has gone on record, unanimously, in endorsing and encouraging the continuation of such activities, since it is unqualifiedly of the opinion that it will contribute greatly to the establishment of better and stronger trade and commercial relations between the two countries, as well as promoting more friendly relations.

These programs have demonstrated that the exchange of educators and materials between the United States and the other



O.I.A.A.

ECUADOREAN SCHOOL CHILDREN AT PLAY

The elementary school seen in the picture is operated by the Cotapaxi Exploration Company, an American firm.

American republics promotes understanding and solidarity, and supplants Axis influence and orientation. Some fifty-five Latin American educators, including Ministers of Education, Directors of Vocational Schools, Directors of Normal Schools, Youth Club leaders, and various types of specialists and teachers, have been invited to visit the United States. Many of them have already returned home and are now engaged in adapting techniques and materials observed here to their local situations. Without exception they have contributed to our understanding of Latin America and the educational problems of the United States. They have also said that they have returned to their countries with experience and ideas which will be helpful to them in their work as educators.

Over seventy United States educators have been sent to work in the other American republics. They are studying the improvement of educational facilities in those countries and at the same time are learning much that will be helpful to them in their professional activities on their return to this country. Nearly 500,000 textbooks, pamphlets, maps, charts, film strips, and other materials have been distributed to elementary, secondary, and normal schools. Through these materials and through our representatives we are reaching a large number of the teachers and pupils of the twenty Latin American Republics.

It also is increasingly apparent that our programs are counteracting the influence of the Axis powers in these countries. Most of the Axis schools have now been closed and the Axis teacher-propagandists have returned home, been deported, or restricted in their activities. The fate of the German schools in Paraguay is typical of what happened elsewhere. In October 1944 the Minister of Education issued a decree ordering that the thirty-seven German directors of

Nazi schools be replaced in all such schools, and that the history, geography, and government of Paraguay should be taught only by Paraguayan teachers.

Every nation has its own peculiar problems and the type of program developed consequently varies from country to country. In Peru the program will emphasize vocational training. The Foundation's representative in Peru, Mr. J. Graham Sullivan, was formerly director of vocational education in San Diego, California, where he supervised the training of over 50,000 war workers. Eight Peruvian educators, four of whom have already arrived, have been invited to the United States for study and exploration in such fields as vocational training, agricultural training, literacy education, youth clubs, and English teaching. These Peruvians are also contributing to our understanding of Peru and its history and culture.

The program for Bolivia has an agricultural orientation. Mr. Ernest E. Maes, representative of the Foundation in Bolivia, hopes to develop a plan that will improve agricultural skills and techniques, provide more effective tools and implements, and better the materials and method of teaching on all levels of instruction.

Chile is planning a complete reorganization of its secondary school system and has requested consultants and technical specialists from the United States to assist in this work. Actual administrative control will be in the hands of a group of Chilean specialists to be named by the Chilean Ministry of Education. Personnel from this country will make the necessary background studies and advise the Chilean administrators. A number of Chilean educators, including Dr. Irma Salas and Dr. Martín Bunster, will come to the United States to lecture, to teach, and to advise American educators on their programs and problems. At the same

SOME GUATEMALAN GIRLS STUDYING TYPING



G. I. A. A.

time these Chilean educators will observe and study secondary schools in the United States and will help select six secondary education specialists to go to Chile. This plan of action was worked out by Dr. Arthur F. Zimmerman, representative of the Foundation in Chile, and Dr. Enrique Marshall, the Chilean Minister of Education.

The governments of Honduras and Nicaragua are building their first rural schools and the programs in these countries will therefore deal primarily with the organization and administration of these schools. Construction on the new rural normal school in Honduras is nearing completion and it is anticipated that the first students will enroll on or about June 1, 1945. Mr. Clay J. Daggett, formerly Director of the Department of Rural Education of Wisconsin State Teachers College, White-water, Wisconsin, has been named representative of the Foundation in Honduras.

The new rural normal school for Nicaragua will not be ready for occupancy for some time. As a consequence, the Cooperative Education program for this country will

be inaugurated this summer with a travelling workshop arrangement modeled to some extent after the Mexican Cultural Missions. A Spanish-speaking specialist in elementary education from the United States will head the program, but other specialists will be supplied by the Nicaraguan government.

Workshop programs will be organized in each of the four principal population centers: Managua, León, Granada and Matagalpa. Each workshop will be in session for approximately two weeks, beginning in Managua and moving from there to the other designated places. All of the teachers in the vicinity of each of these towns will be provided transportation to and from the workshop by the Nicaraguan government. As the workshop will be held at a time when the schools are in session, the directors of the program will observe teaching and materials of instruction during the regular school day. In the evenings they will arrange special programs for the teachers or parents and work with teachers to improve teaching materials and methods.

The program in Panama does not pro-

vide for a permanent representative or a field party, as is the usual procedure. It merely provides for the sending of three English teachers and a number of consultants to work with the director of the new vocational school proposed in Panama City. Dr. Nariño Rivera, the principal of the present vocational school, was recently in the United States visiting vocational schools and conferring with educators and technical specialists in his field of interest.

In Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, and Paraguay the programs are similar to one or the other of those already described so that a detailed description of them is not necessary. In Argentina and Brazil, however, a different type of program has developed. In these countries the Foundation has a special representative whose principal

function is to work with educators, maintaining liaison between them and the Cultural Relations Officers of the embassies and consulates. In Argentina Mr. Cyrus Brady, Jr. is the Foundation's representative and in Brazil Dr. John E. Englekirk is acting in a similar capacity. It is believed that the activities of these two men will eventually lead to the development of full cooperative programs.

The Foundation makes no attempt to impose a preconceived program or philosophy of education on any of the countries with which it deals. Its programs are truly cooperative, and are designed merely to help, in strict accordance with national character and the national philosophy of education, in the solution of problems locally determined to be of maximum significance.

Yesterday and Today in Puebla

EUGENE YSITA

Division of Economic Information, Pan American Union

NEAR Popocatepetl and Ixtaccihuatl, most imposing of Mexico's volcanoes, cozily nestles the beautiful State of Puebla.

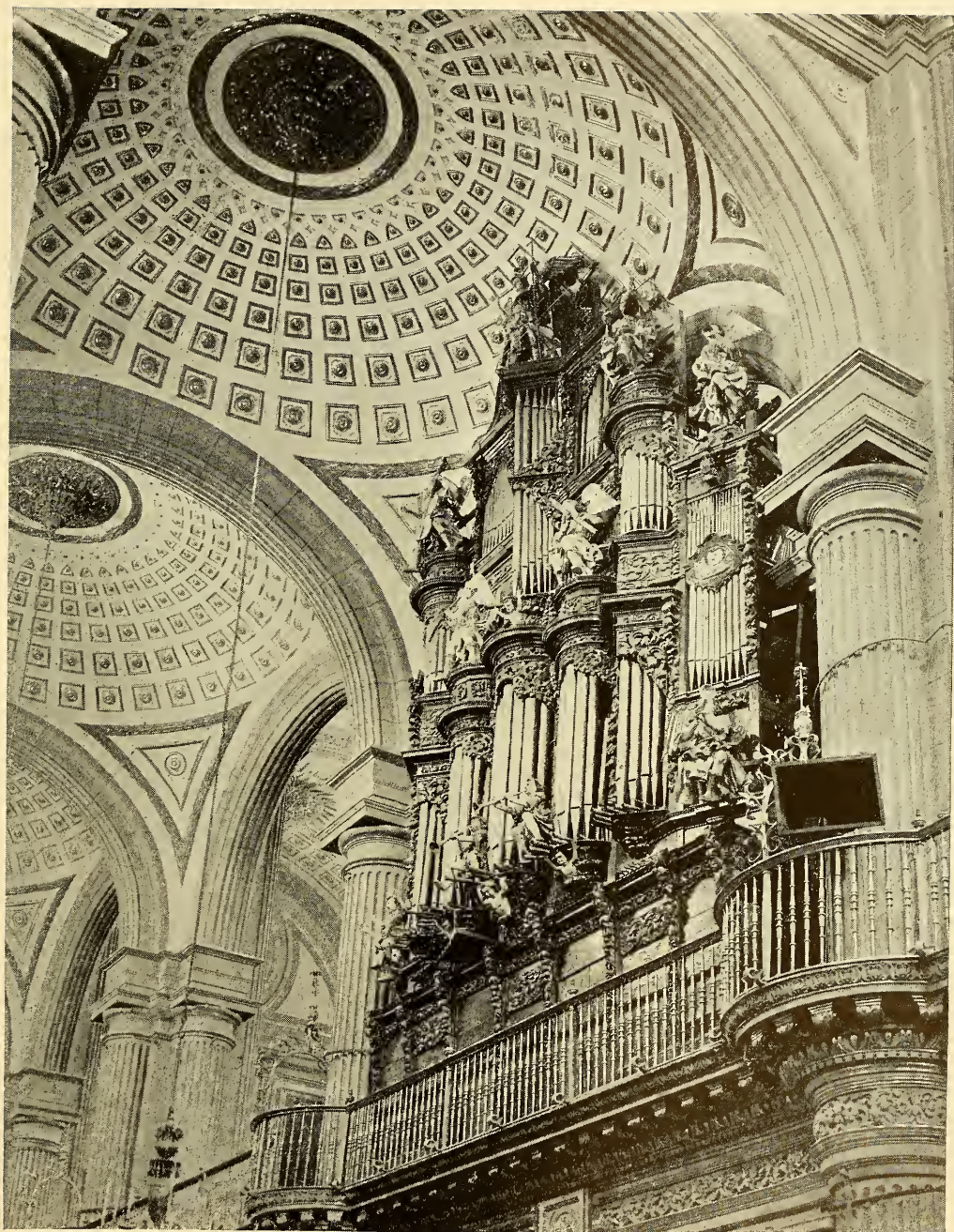
In the heart of this delightful land, where flowers bloom without heed for the seasons and birds fill the air with their melodious songs, stands the state's capital city, Puebla of the Angels, so named by the Franciscan friar who selected the site in the year 1532.

All along its neat streets massive colonial buildings speak of bygone days full of historical events and brilliant social affairs. Majestic churches, where masters of chisel and brush left imprinted the best that was in

them, add an air of reverence and charm to this colorful and privileged city.

Vivid indeed is the contrast between the ancient and the new. This contrast is a source of constant delight to the dweller and the passerby, for the ancient preserves what is dear to the heart and the new keeps pace with the world's advance.

A modern automobile parks beside the old familiar donkey. A twentieth-century refrigerator proudly stands near the traditional *bracero*, the old and reliable charcoal stove. In the *bornillas* of the stove, huge pots contain the midday meal, slowly cooking since



Photograph by Osuna

A CATHEDRAL ORGAN, PUEBLA

Angelic musicians adorn this beautiful eighteenth century organ.



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

A WINDOW IN PUEBLA

Old tiles and a luxuriant bougainvillea frame a modern girl.

the early morning hours, and oatmeal for the children's breakfast, keeping company with the famous *mole de guajolote* or a savory *puchero*.¹

On the marble top of the bureau, exquisitely carved seventy-odd years ago, stands the electric clock constantly pondering the why of the many chains, the intricate contraptions, and the monotonous pendulum motion of the old timekeeper in the corner of the room. Over the window, heavily protected by iron bars behind which

¹ "*Mole de guajolote*" is turkey prepared with a special rich sauce, for which Puebla enjoys great fame; "*puchero*" is a stew.

cheeks used to blush rosy red at the tender expression of a lover's serenade, the Venetian blind does its best to keep out the rays of the early sun, which mockingly find their way in through the skylight.

Later a vacuum cleaner, devised thousands of miles away by ingenious mechanical minds, sonorously eats its morning meal out of the living room carpet, while the corridor bricks get their daily scrubbing with soap and heavy brush. The electric bell announces the arrival of callers; the artistic door knocker leads a life of sad neglect.

Outside, the feather-duster man and the vegetable and flower venders intone their wonted cries, and indoors, competing with them, the radio announcers dramatically describe the advantages and comforts of this or that. Meanwhile the bald-headed old parrot strains his little brain, trying to combine within the cavity of his beak the unfamiliar with the familiar words.

Hardly perceptible among the matutinal noises are the distant sounds of the ambulant hand organ playing to its appreciative street audience the latest popular ballad, the stanzas of which sarcastically depict some major political event; indoors the modern victrola renders Beethoven's monumental works.

Activities in shops and factories oscillate between old manual methods and new mechanical devices. The weaver painstakingly interlaces threads of cotton, silk, and wool, the final combination of which gives birth to the famous *sarape* and indispensable *rebozo*. At the same time complicated textile machinery a few blocks away is turning out mile after mile of cloth.

In another direction a glass blower patiently shapes as if by magic his delicate figures of bird and beast, while nearby a parade of machine-made glassware marches down the assembly line of a modern glass factory.

Farther up the street long artistic hands skilfully shape jars and pots of every conceivable type, adorning the primitive clay with pigments of a secret process; not far away an up-to-date concern engages in mass production of so-called practical chinaware.

Out on the open range under the blistering sun a wooden plow responds to powerful brown arms and slowly imposes its will on Mother Earth; elsewhere in the vicinity large plots of land yield rapidly to the impact of the tractor.

And so, no matter where one looks, the eye encounters a wide variety of marvelous contrasts: the modern trying to displace the

old; the latter stubbornly fighting to keep alive. And alive it will be as long as it pleases the soul of man.

And when the sun in all its glory has finally set, and men have earned their daily bread, bells over all the city—deep resounding bells and thin high-pitched ones—call the faithful to the house of the Lord. Side by side, the humble in their typical attire and the well-to-do, clad in the latest fashions, reverently pray together: "Give peace in our day, oh Lord, for there is none other that fighteth for us but only Thou, our God. Let there be peace in Thy strength, oh Lord, and plenty in Thy strong places. . . ."



THE CATHEDRAL AT SUNSET

In the early evening bells all over the city call the faithful to church.

The Third Inter-American Press Congress

PAUL S. WALCOTT

Editor, Greenfield Recorder-Gazette

THE Inter-American Press Congress held at Caracas, Venezuela, from May 11 to 18 was the third. The object of these congresses is hemispheric consultation to strengthen and improve the press and give it fullest scope for the better functioning of democracy as it advances from an idea to a continuing society. The realization of this object is still imperfect and not fleshed out; it remains more of a promise than an attainment.

Progress towards this realization as well as difficulties, in themselves of an importance to justify the interest of newspapers and governments throughout the hemisphere, may play a yet greater role in world relationships.

This Third Congress met within a fortnight of the return to the United States of the World Freedom of Information Committee sent around the world by the American Society of Newspaper Editors. The Caracas meeting adjourned before the report of that committee was available.

Reading the report against the Congress proceedings now discloses a remarkable similarity of problems and of approaches to their solution. The ASNE Committee made three specific recommendations: 1, working "fellowships" in the United States for young foreign newspaper reporters; 2, a world newspaper conference; 3, support for greater press freedom as an aid to enduring peace.

The first has been effectively begun during these war years by the interchange of Latin and North Americans. The second is but the logical extension to a global basis of the

Inter-American Congress. The third is as earnestly urged, and more specifically implemented, in the resolutions passed at Caracas.

As the United Nations Conference at San Francisco profited immeasurably by the practical demonstration given through the years by the Pan American Union and its crowning Act of Chapultepec, so the projected world organization of and for a free press as a cardinal right and need of humanity can derive inspiration and example from the Inter-American Press Society.

It is perhaps sobering to Yankee overconfidence to recall that it was Latin vision and Mexican hospitality which resulted in the first Congress in 1942. It probably augurs well for its permanence that the initiative came from the south and that delegations from the United States (the country of the world richest in press as in other wealth and implements) are still far from dominating or even leading the evolution of the Congresses.

The meeting at Caracas was attended by the largest delegation yet to represent the United States, although efforts to stimulate interest here were thrown into drastic reverse months earlier because of scarcity of transport. The delegation to some extent was haphazard, although it did represent large and small newspapers of five states, as well as press services and magazines. The Latin interest was further balanced by a delegate from Canada, one from Curaçao and two from Trinidad.

Wartime exigencies had interfered with

the plans of press representatives from other lands, beside thrice postponing the Congress date from that originally scheduled for June 1944. Thus there was no newspaperman present from the great country of Brazil; none from Argentina and Chile; and only two from Mexico.

On the other hand, only three countries were wholly unrepresented. There were, including the two-score delegates accredited by Venezuela and representing its provincial as well as capital press, some 125 delegates attending. To compensate for the imbalance of delegations, balloting was established on the basis of one vote to each country represented.

It was the distinction, as well as the size, of the Colombian delegation which, more than any other factor, led to the selection of that country, among three inviting nations, as the place for the Fourth Congress.

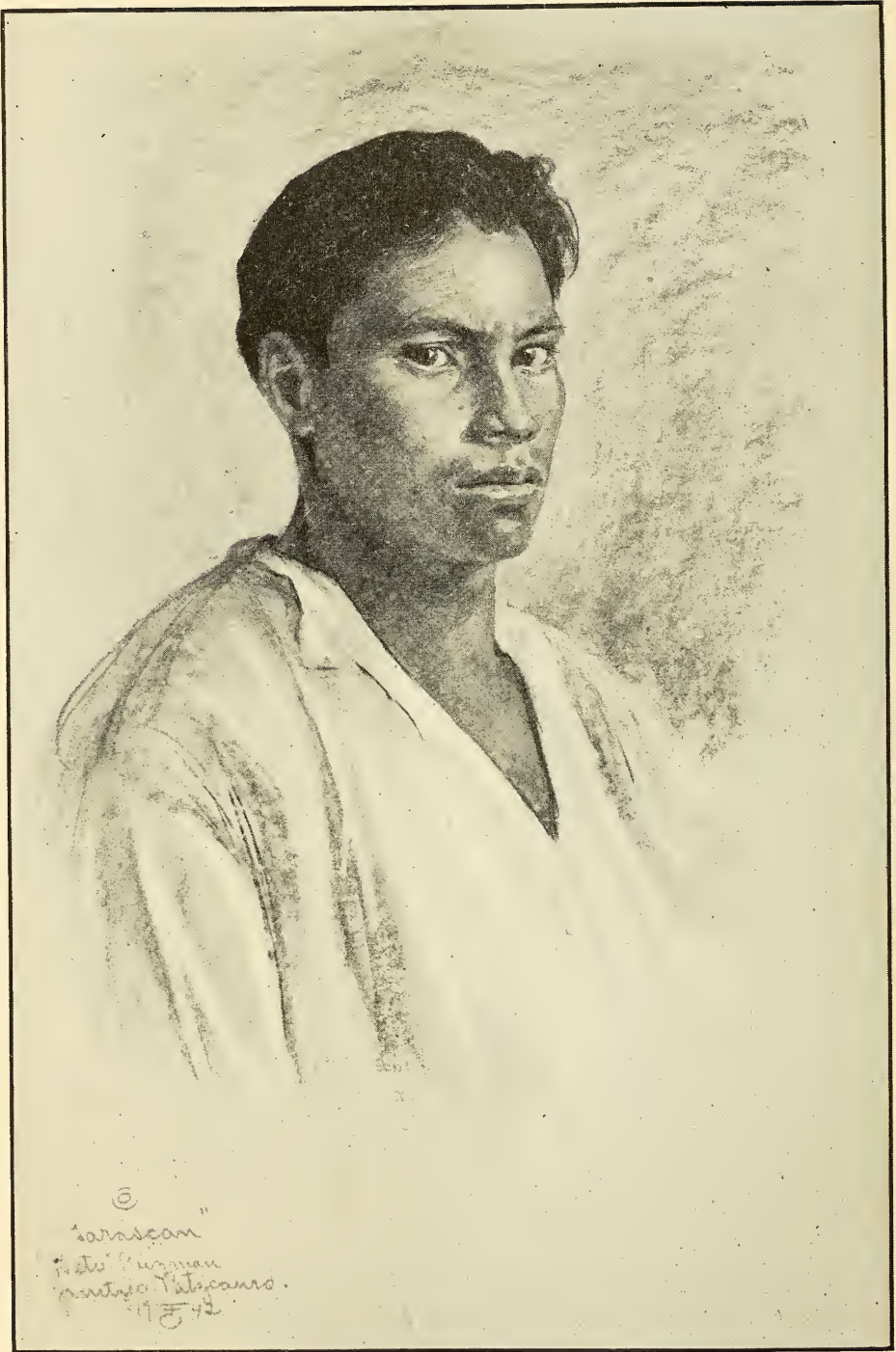
This is not the medium in which to attempt analysis or exposition of the press problems raised, of the steps taken to meet them, or of the efforts to give continuity and substance to the Inter-American Press Society. More readers may be interested in the good neighborly aspects.

Venezuelan hospitality was lavish and thoughtful. Red tape was slashed to expedite the entry of the delegates, a formal program of entertainment was scheduled

which alone would have taxed energies, and in addition individuals and government were constantly alert to gratify the slightest suggestion of a wish on the part of anyone for more insight into and enjoyment of Venezuela.

Although the four-language division of the hemisphere (Spanish was the tongue used for maximum convenience although not by formal rule) naturally made participation in floor debates unequal, no language barrier hampered the general feeling of fellowship and neighborliness. Many Latin American newspapermen, by study or travel, were able and willing to put a linguistic crutch under faltering North Americans, but it was not unusual during the week of intensive and intimate collaboration for one with English as his sole vehicle to find himself at ease in a Spanish-speaking circle or for one limited to Spanish to find himself sharing an automobile with those voluble only in English.

Of course, as travelers well know, English has such a place in the public education curriculum of Venezuela and business and social interchange has been so long in progress on a large scale that a North American can wander anywhere in Caracas and find volunteer interpreters on every hand, who show no apparent impatience with the tongue-tied stranger.



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BETO GUZMAN

Drawing of a Tarascan Indian, Mexico, by Eben F. Comins.

Pepe Marries

EBEN F. COMINS

PEPE stood between two rocks that jutted into the Lake, his dugout at his feet. The heavens above and the still waters below had become as one—the interior of a global orb of stars. In the center of this glistening universe he stood alone on his native Island, waiting, with body undefiled. His Indian ancestors from the dim past had handed down standards of clean living. He had obeyed their rules. Now he was allowed to obey the fires of nature surging through his veins. A response already had been awakened in another young Tarascan, Asunción. She too had obeyed her people's laws, and now instinct told her the time for marriage had come. In the silence of her home she waited.

Their courtship had been short and limited, for they were Indians and young. The urge of youth for youth needs few words or romantic actions to reach a mutual understanding. As children many times they had passed each other by, unnoticed. Then one day as he ducked under a fish net hung up to dry, he met her, and his hand touched her bare arm. The spark was lighted. Later when they met, smiles were exchanged; another time he followed her and gently pulled her skirt. Her answer was a giggle as she slipped away. From then on instinct told them that they were paired for each other.

Finally he said he would come some night and take her. That night had come. Instinct also told him the hour was half-way between sunset and midnight—the hour that had been chosen in past ages for a man to set forth on life's new adventure to be shared with another.

Silently he stepped into the boat; he lifted his paddle, then let it dip into the water. The effect was of a gigantic ladle, so large it played havoc with the universe; constellations were broken into atoms. Antares, the ruby star, was torn from the heart of Scorpio, and flung into inverted Virgo's lap. But Pepe had no eyes for stars; his were riveted on land, to the little home resting atop a rocky shelf above. Up the dark paths he strode, stopping before a house that glowed a phosphorescent white. He softly ticked on the door. There was no answer: again, and there was no answer. Then again, and the door was closed hardly before it was open. Champing like a young bull he resisted further delay. At the fourth tick the door opened and a pair of eyes showed a timid smile. It came from Asunción. As the door started to close, he stepped forward and blocked the closure; his hand shot in, took her hand and pulled her out. It was none too soon for her to know that he was her man and must be obeyed. Standing still for a few moments, their eyes met; she caught his meaning. It was enough. He turned and was on his way; she followed. At the boat she slumped into the bottom afraid; there were few smiles now. No words were spoken as they rounded the point. He landed between the same two rocks from which he had started. He had obeyed the tradition of the Island that the

Copyright 1945 by Eben F. Comins. Extract from a book in preparation "The Brown Thread"; "Indians through the Eyes of an Artist." The names used in this story are imaginary

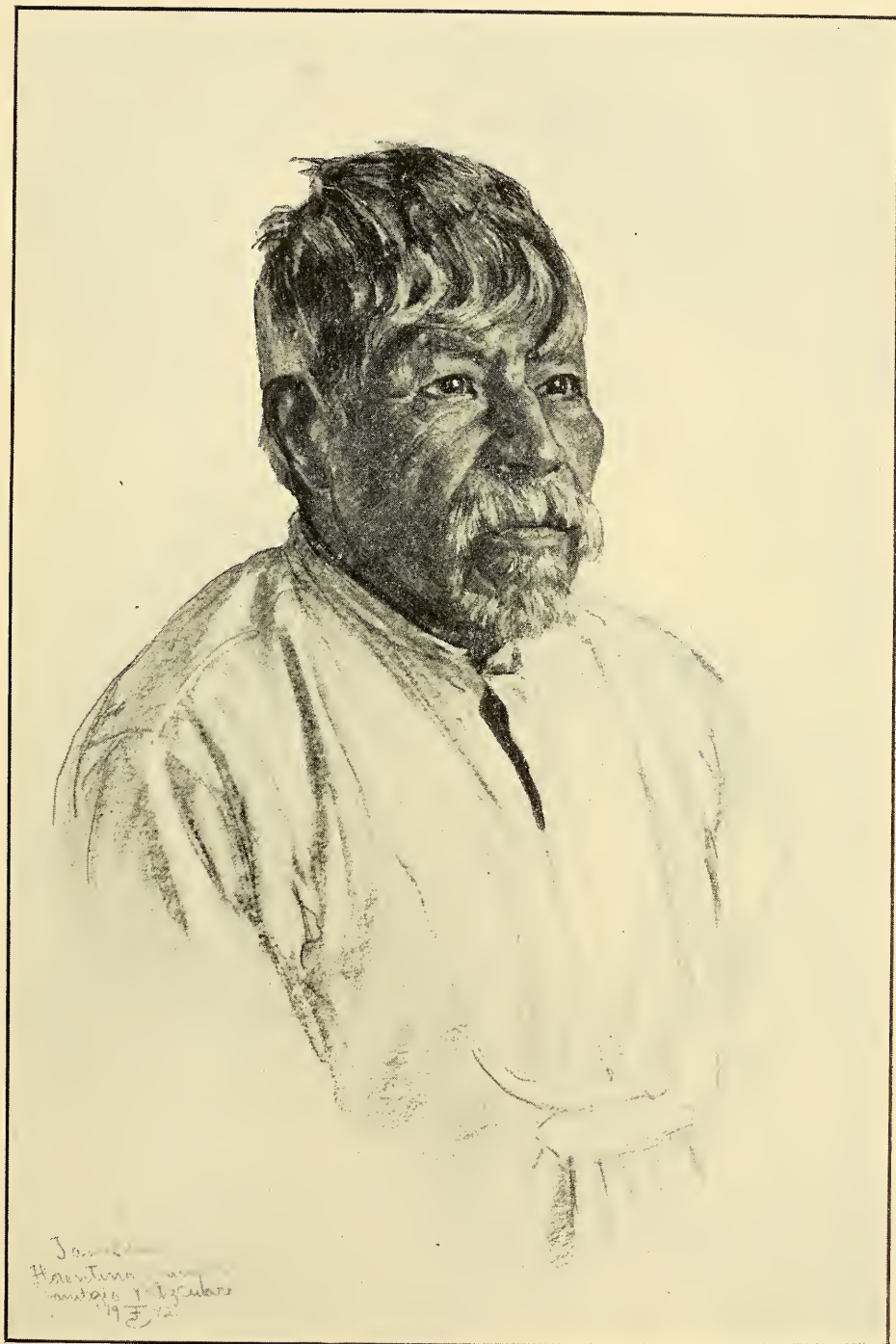
The BULLETIN has been privileged on previous occasions to publish articles by Mr. Comins and reproductions of some of his other portraits of Indians. See "Indians that I have drawn," BULLETIN, July 1939, "Five drawings of Mexican Indians," January 1941; "The Ail-ail," August 1943; and "Cuailicue," November 1943.

man go for and bring back his chosen by water no matter how short the distance. He got out; she followed him. Before his home they paused; he knocked this time with decision—again and then again. Presently it was opened; his mother filled the door. She looked at them both with an all-knowing, half-angry smile—for she must act her disapproval at what was going on—then put forth her hand, took Asunción's, pulled the child in and closed the door in Pepe's face. Rebuffed, he stood outside but did not force admission. He could now afford to wait.

Asunción had already begun her trial for approval. In the dark room the mother found her mat on the floor and sinking down upon it, motioned the girl to follow. She must now sleep with her mother-in-law to be. Timid little soul, she slipped to the same mat, keeping as far as possible from the other's form lest she disturb it. All through the night she remained awake. Those eyes that once had smiled at Pepe now shone with fear. From out of the blackness she saw a square of stars; it was the open window that, as in all Tarascan homes, had never known a sash or pane of glass. A flickering glow, filling one corner of the room, came from the rounded adobe oven, and beside it a dying fagot, stuck in a clumsy adobe candlestick, sputtered sparks and sent forth a pungent, piny smoke. As she grew used to the dark, more familiar objects took the same places as she had seen them take in her own home. In another corner great skeins of fish nets were hooked over a sturdy pole braced corner-wise under the eaves and flowed downward like a waterfall. Over her head, on planks under the roof, she knew were stored the ears of corn that in time she would help grind for tortillas. Scattered over the floor were the silent forms of Pepe's brothers and sisters. Missing was the one of his father. As it was night, he was away on the Lake fishing.

The next day the whole community was agog with gossip. Pepe had kidnapped Asunción. Her family pretended to be enraged. Had not their prize daughter been stolen! Had they not lost the best tortilla maker in the village! To appease this anger, Pepe's parents collected food, clothes and *charanda* (that potent drink made from raw sugar), and on the third night at nine o'clock they appeared at the door of the incensed parents bearing these royal gifts. At first their knocks went unheeded, but finally the door was opened by the angry father, and they were permitted to enter. The mother was in the throes of grief. Though her heart was breaking, her eyes were able to appraise the many presents. When the bottle of liquor was presented and opened, father's wrath subsided and mother dried her eyes. It was good *charanda*, so perhaps after all Pepe was not such a bad boy; but they must not forget their daughter deserved the best. As the liquor continued to flow, good will spread over all, and by midnight they parted on friendly terms. A few nights later Asunción's parents repeated the gift-bearing ceremony to Pepe's parents. At this session details were discussed for the children's welfare. Later laboratory tests were made of the couple's blood by a doctor, to comply with government rules. A certificate of a clean bill of health was given them.

Then came the fateful day, the day of marriage, the day of the three ceremonies. Early in the morning, Pepe and Asunción made a striking picture as they got into their respective dugouts. He looked every inch a fisherman in his best white cotton shirt with pleated bosom, and wrap-around trousers tied with a crimson sash. She looked like some native flower in her elaborately embroidered waist and trailing vermilion skirt with its many pleats. With pride she wore her finery which had been worn by her mother and grandmother at their wed-



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FLORENTINO CAMPOS

Drawing of a Tarascan Indian by Eben F. Comins.



Copyright 1945 by Eben F. Comins

PETRA DE LA SALUD

Drawing of a Tarascan Indian by Eben F. Comins.

dings. Accompanying them were the bridal party, his *padrino* (groomsman) and her *madrina* (bridesmaid), the respective parents, all their cousins and their aunts, and a multitude of friends. As they crossed the Lake to the town the importance of the coming ceremonies calmed the exuberant spirits of the younger members, though sly remarks were continually whispered about. At the City Hall the bridal couple signed their names in a big ledger, and the Clerk pronounced them married by the civil law of Mexico. Then all wound their way up the hill to the church, where the priest recited the marriage ritual. With lighted candles and swinging censers, the Church proclaimed them man and wife. On the return trip the flotilla of boats was joined by more friends, and as the formalities of the wedding ceremonies wore off the bridal couple returned home amid singing and the firing of rockets. It was ten o'clock and still morning when they stepped once more onto their native island. The wedding party made a gay sight as the bride and groom, decorated with flowers, danced along the paths singing. They sashayed back and forth between the two houses and ended at Pepe's, where he presented his best man with the proverbial *charanda*. From now on it was a continuous feast and fête.

Soon Asunción took up her almost endless task of making *atole* (a corn gruel), necessary to help abate the hunger and thirst of the ever increasing multitude. Buckets of this tepid drink and bottle after bottle of *charanda* were consumed. Dancing, drinking, and the hot air in one small room made for much gayety. At nine o'clock a quiet fell over the assembly. It announced that the Tarascan ceremony of abasement would take place. Timidly Asunción rose, and leaving the half-circle of her own family went and stood before her father-in-law. Slowly she sank to the ground, and in abasement leaned forward and kissed his bare feet. Next she went to her mother-in-law and kissed hers, then repeated the ceremony along the line, which included all of Pepe's relations. This over, she retreated and Pepe stepped forward from his family group, and prostrated himself before the bare feet of his mother-in-law and repeated the kissing ceremony, which included the feet of his father-in-law and all of his wife's relatives.

With the osculatory ceremony over, Asunción continued to brew *atole* until the dawn of the next day, when the guests finally left. At last the three wedding ceremonies were over, and she and Pepe were married by the rites of Church, state, and tribal custom.

American Figures, Past and Present

III. Afranio de Mello Franco

RIBEIRO COUTO

WHEN the old man said with melancholy presentiment that it was the last day of the year and also the last day of his life, his little granddaughter went up to his bed and tried to comfort him in her childish way: "No, granddaddy, you're going to live until 1943." It was the afternoon of December 31, 1942. The house was full of sons, daughters, sons-in-law, daughters-in-law, and friends. Among the friends was the kindly giant Pedro Nava, the physician who had the duty of deciding on all emergency treatments in the early dawn or in sudden crises. . . .

In the house on Copacabana Avenue in Rio de Janeiro calm seemed to reign, but it was only a disguise for anxiety.

Could the citizen of the world be desperately ill? Everyone perceived it. The physicians implied the truth. The telephone rang all day long and even late at night. The members of the family who answered it said with suppressed emotion: "Thank you very much. He seems to be better now." Through the always open dining-room door came in on tiptoe intimate friends of the family. They, too, were old like the sick man, some of them judges, others lawyers, former members of Congress, famous figures in the political world and others not so well known—usually people from Minas Gerais, as could be

seen immediately by their air of unswerving loyalty, few words, and long glances.

The sick man suffered no pain. There were only weakness, a catch in his breath, an uneven pulse, and fading vitality. His unimpaired memory brought back diplomatic episodes, his work, his travels.

There was fighting in the world. Cities were burning, continents were at war—and he was helpless. His whole being revolted. The physicians came and prepared his arm for an injection. "How are you? Are you better?" In a faint voice he replied as logically and clearly as if he were in a meeting, "I feel nothing. If I am better, it is you who can tell me so."

A bird began to sing in an acacia tree in the garden. Could it be one of "his" *patativas* come back for a visit? Some time before he had let all the birds out of his aviary, a sad farewell, which to the family seemed an anticipation of another and more poignant one. For the friend of all those men who at Geneva from 1924 to 1932 had tried to save the future of Europe through formulas of understanding and good will was an enthusiastic lover of birds. He might be at his desk drafting a confidential note which would bring war or peace, as in the Leticia case, but if a goldfinch sang he would go down into the garden, even perhaps in his pajamas. An expert in songbirds, he could distinguish a *curió* from a *sabiá* at a distance, simply by its flight, with the same legal precision with which he could say of an unsigned paragraph

Translated from "Revista da Academia Brasileira de Letras," Anais de 1943, Janeiro a Junho; first published in "A Manhã," Rio de Janeiro, 3 de janeiro de 1943.



AFRANIO DE MELLO FRANCO

whether it was an article from the Czechoslovakian constitution or part of a boundary agreement between Hungary and Yugoslavia. In world capitals, Washington or Buenos Aires, Bucharest or Prague, his daily dealings were with men who governed nations, but when he was once home again, after congresses in which he had talked to the world on the destinies of mankind, he would go immediately to his aviary to see the *curupião* that imitated the trumpet call in the bar racks of his beloved Belo Horizonte.¹

He had had more than half a century of public life. Congress, embassies, revolutions, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, international conferences, the authorship of theories of international law were familiar to him, but nothing had changed his love of home or the simplicity of a great gentleman. He unflinchingly knew how to put out a friendly hand to the humble. With the same courtesy with which he might have addressed Mr. Kellogg to discuss questions of world disarmament, he would speak to a servant: "Have you changed the canary's water?"

In these pleasant summer days no one wishes to die. At the foot of the hills there is the ringing of hammers and the rasping of saws. New skyscrapers begin to rise. I do not know what glory seems to imbue the city's labor. Can it be the light? Perhaps it is the contentment that fills men's hearts, that contentment of knowing that finally they deserve life, because they are living with full awareness of risk and struggle.

Neither did the former President of the League of Nations Council want to die. It

was only a little while ago that he had been drafting principles to govern the future of the American continent and the democracies. What would be the end of the governments of force, the instigators of this horrible conflagration? He hated force; the only violence ever known in him was the irresistible kick that he gave a fierce sharply-spurred young cock to save a favorite old rooster from unequal combat. His energy was enveloped in tolerance, gentleness, and courtesy, like those sheets of fine Renaissance steel preserved in museums between folds of beautiful velvet.

Must he die before seeing the end of the war and the victory of the democracies, before he knew the fate of the Americas and of those civilizations yet to be born or to disappear? "Oh, never to die like this. . ."

A few minutes before midnight of December 31 all the members of the family entered his room. Each in turn kissed him. There were joyful exclamations. The citizen of the world was so much better, so placid, and so cheerful, that it seemed as if his convalescence had begun. For the first time after many anxious, weary nights, everyone would sleep peacefully.

About three o'clock in the morning the physician and nurse became alarmed. There was a new crisis, the patient's pulse was failing, his extremities were cold. "Everything is useless, my body will respond no more," he said gently from the threshold of death. Calmly he watched the hurried attempts to relieve him. The faithful Mauricio was preparing a poultice and the doctor, standing in an uncomfortable position, was giving an emergency injection. The sick man said to the nurse: "Mauricio, never mind the poultice; bring a chair so that Dr. Nava can sit down"—last words that expressed a supreme and innate courtesy. A few moments later he died, in the third hour of the new year, confirming

¹ Of the songbirds named in this paragraph, the *sabiá* is probably dearest to the hearts of Brazilians. It is a sort of nightingale, celebrated a century ago by Gonçalves Dias in a famous poem, "*Canção do Exílio*." The text of this poem is on p. 455.—EDITOR.

the ingenuous prophecy of his little granddaughter: "You will live until 1943."

On the tomb of Afranio Mello Franco we should place, if it were possible, a handful of earth from Paracatú, from Montevideo,

from London, and from Brussels, summoning these and many other cities to unite in a perfect tribute. For his heart beat chiefly for justice and for friendship among nations.

Afranio de Mello Franco was born on February 25, 1870 at Paracatú, Minas Gerais, Brazil, and at the time of his death was Chairman of the Inter-American Juridicial Committee sitting at Rio de Janeiro. He was member or chairman of the Brazilian delegation to many inter-American conferences; head of the permanent Brazilian delegation to the League of Nations and twice President of the Council; judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice, 1923-29; Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, 1930-33; author of the Protocol of Peace, Friendship and Cooperation signed by Colombia and Peru to end the Leticia incident. See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, April 1943, for the tribute of the Governing Board to "one of those great jurists who belonged not only to their own country but to the world."

Portuguese Page

Canção do Exílio

A. GONÇALVES DIAS

Minha terra tem palmeiras,
Onde canta o Sabiá;
As aves, que aqui gorjeiam,
Não gorjeiam como lá.

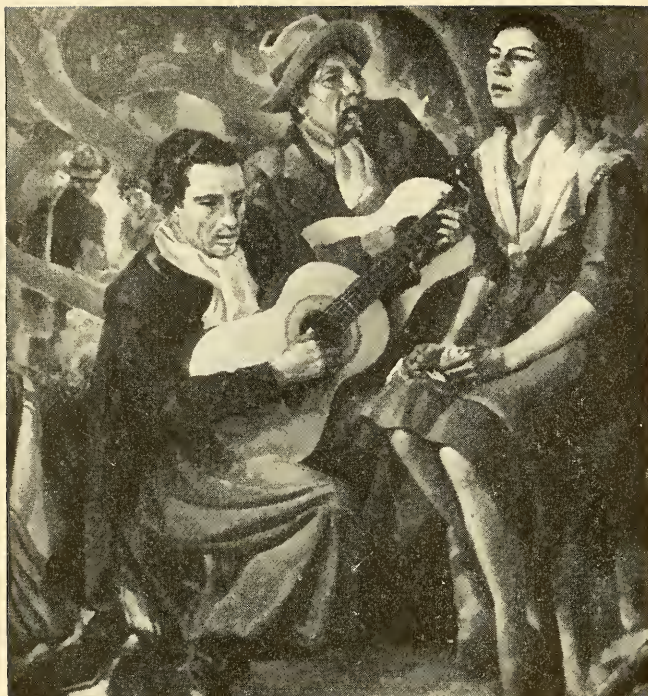
Nosso céu tem mais estrelas,
Nossas várzeas têm mais flores,
Nossos bosques têm mais vida,
Nossa vida mais amores.

Em cismar, sozinho, à noite,
Mais prazer encontro eu lá;
Minha terra tem palmeiras,
Onde canta o Sabiá.

Minha terra tem primores,
Que tais não encontro eu cá;
Em cismar—sozinho, à noite—
Mais prazer encontro eu lá;
Minha terra tem palmeiras,
Onde canta o Sabiá.

Não permita Deus que eu morra,
Sem que eu volte para lá;
Sem que desfrute os primores
Que não encontro por cá;
Sem qu'inda aviste as palmeiras,
Onde canta o Sabiá.

Coimbra, julho de 1843.



"NATIVE SONG"



"VINTAGE"

Paintings by Fidel de Lucía

The paintings reproduced here are the work of Fidel de Lucía, one of Argentina's best contemporary provincial artists.

Born in 1896, de Lucía has lived from early childhood in the Province of Mendoza, and his works reflect the beauties and daily life of his environment. He is a self-educated painter and particularly excels in landscapes, although many of his works, obviously inspired by the everyday scenes of the artist's provincial life, also portray both people and animals.

De Lucía's first exhibition was held in Buenos Aires in 1920. Since then he has won a number of prizes and his paintings now hang in many of Argentina's museums. His interest in art has not been confined to his own work. He has helped greatly in developing the study and understanding of art in Mendoza. In 1927 he was one of the founders of the Museum of Fine Arts there and in 1933 helped to organize the Mendoza Provincial Academy of Fine Arts, today a thriving institution in which de Lucía is one of the teachers.



"THE FIG TREE"



"SPRING IN
THE VALLEY"

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XLI

ARGENTINA

98a₂. October 7, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 10,121, fixing a minimum of 1,000,000 tons for the annual production of Portland cement in the country; fixing maximum quotas of linseed oil as fuel for cement factories; providing that old wheat be used to make up the deficit of fuel and requiring the Grain Regulation Board to reserve 400,000 tons of old wheat for this purpose; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, October 16, 1943.)

98m₃. December 31, 1943. Presidential Decree No. 18,161, establishing conditions for the acquisition by the Grain Regulation Board of the 1942-43 and the 1943-44 flax crop. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 12, 1944.)

207a. January 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 536, fixing penalties for all kinds of crimes against

the state, including those against internal security, external security, supplies for the armed forces, the national economy, the execution of industrial work (sabotage and strikes), and the security of air transportation and telecommunications; defining and listing such crimes; providing for heavier penalties when the crimes are committed during wartime or when war is imminent; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 29, 1945.)

216. February 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1,787, amending Presidential Decree No. 10,121 (see 98a₂ above) to allow cement factories to make up their fuel oil deficit with other substitutes besides old wheat, and repealing the clause requiring the Grain Regulation Board to reserve 400,000 tons of old wheat for cement factories. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

217. February 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No.

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR ^{8, 12} STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declara- tion by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	¹ Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	² Bulgaria ³ Rumania ⁴ Hungary	
Argentina.....	⁵ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(¹)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	⁸ G-2-12-45	⁸ 2-12-45 ¹⁴ 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	⁹ 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (¹⁰)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	¹¹ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	¹² G-2-11-45	¹² 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(¹³)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	⁸ 2-14-45	⁸ 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

2,460, providing that the Agricultural Production Regulation Board acquire up to 300,000 tons of graded, certified wheat of the 1944-45 crop; fixing prices for various types of wheat, and making other provisions regulating its sale. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 22, 1945.)

218. February 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,003, authorizing the Agricultural Production Regulation Board to sell surplus stocks of the 1943-44 corn crop back to the producers at a lower price than that fixed by Presidential Decree No. 11,433 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121*a*, BULLETIN, March 1945), until February 25, 1945, after which date it may sell the remaining corn to other interested parties. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

219. February 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,004, abolishing the basic prices for the 1943-44 wheat and flax crop fixed by Decrees Nos. 9,967, of September 28, 1943, 18,161 of December 31, 1943, and 7,600 of March 28, 1944 (see Argentina 98, BULLETIN, February and April 1944; 98*m*₃ above; and 107*a*, BULLETIN, October 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

220. February 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,217, authorizing the Department of Industry and Commerce to acquire during 1945, through the Agricultural Production Regulation Board, 300,000 tons of linseed oil and the resulting by-products, the oil to be sold by the Y.P.F. as a substitute for mineral fuel oils; regulating prices for this oil; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 22, 1945.)

221. February 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,269, authorizing the Department of Labor and Social Welfare, in view of the difficult situation created by the war, to acquire by private bids, direct purchase, or any advisable means the equipment and services needed for its normal operation. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

222. February 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,959, embargoing the full value of future orders of payment on the "Reichsmark A" account (maintained mutually by the Central Bank of Argentina and the Deutsche Verrechnungskasse of Berlin to pay for imports and exports between Germany and Argentina; created to make up for the lack of German credits abroad), to an amount sufficient to indemnify Argentine owners of ships and cargoes damaged by German ships, including any court costs involved, to meet internment expenses for the Graf Spee crew, and to cover the debit balance of the *Deutsche Verrechnungskasse* of Ber-

lin in the Central Bank of Argentina; requiring importers resident in Argentina to pay the value of their German imports when and as prescribed by the Ministry of the Treasury; providing that if the aforementioned funds are insufficient to meet the specified purposes, North German Lloyd deposits in the Central Bank of Argentina shall be embargoed therefor; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1945.)

BRAZIL

187. June 6, 1945. Decree declaring the existence of a state of war between Brazil and Japan. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, Washington, D. C., June 10, 1945.)

COLOMBIA

(Correction) Item 118*c*, BULLETIN, June 1945, should have been numbered 118*a*.

127*c*. July 28, 1944. Resolution No. 468, National Price Control Office, providing for the assignment of wheat and flour quotas to bakeries and other establishments, and extending through July 1945 the wheat and flour prices fixed in accordance with Resolution No. 39 of October 6, 1943 and Nos. 266 and 353 of April 21 and May 25, 1944 (see Colombia 90*c*, 119*a*, and 123*a*, BULLETIN, March, October, and December 1944.) (*Diario Oficial*, April 10, 1945.)

151. (Correction) December 31, 1944. Law No. 101, approving the Convention on the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, February 6, 1945.)

157. March 1, 1945. Resolution No. 125, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 580 of October 3, 1944 (see Colombia 148, BULLETIN, February 1945) to fix new maximum wholesale and retail prices for vegetable fats. (*Diario Oficial*, March 22, 1945.)

158. March 6, 1945. Resolution No. 137, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum retail and wholesale prices for a specified brand of tyrothricin. (*Diario Oficial*, March 26, 1945.)

159. March 8, 1945. Resolution No. 141, National Price Control Office, repealing Resolutions Nos. 109, 522, 560, and 580 of February 17, August 24, September 11, and October 3, 1944, and No. 125 of March 1, 1945 (see Colombia 105, 134, 140*a* and 148, BULLETIN, June 1944 and January and February 1945, and 157 above), making new

regulations for distribution of lard and vegetable fats, fixing new wholesale and retail prices for such fats, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, April 3, 1945.)

160. March 20, 1945. Resolution No. 169, National Price Control Office, amplifying the provisions of Resolution No. 50 of October 29, 1943 (see Colombia 90*f*, BULLETIN, March 1944) for rent control in Bogotá, Department capitals, and other cities of more than 10,000 population. (*Diario Oficial*, April 5, 1945.)

CUBA

494*a*. November 16, 1943. Resolution No. 154, prescribing further measures to regulate the purchase, sale, use, and consumption of rubber. (See Cuba 302, 304, 313, 364, 421, and 474, BULLETIN, March, April, June, September 1943, and January 1944.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, November 19, 1943, p. 19428.)

735. February 22, 1945. Resolution No. 306, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 304 of February 9, 1945 (see Cuba 730, BULLETIN, May 1945) regarding the slaughter of cattle and distribution of meat. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 26, 1945, p. 4006.)

736. February 23, 1945. Resolution No. 307, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires and tubes for use in the production and transportation of milk, coffee, and small fruits in the Guantánamo region. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 3, 1945, p. 4484.)

737. February 23, 1945. Resolution No. 308, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 195 of March 14, 1944 (see Cuba 545*b*, BULLETIN, July 1944), which created a National Commission for the Purchase and Supply of Edible Fats. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 3, 1945, p. 4485.)

738. February 26, 1945. Resolution No. 309, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires and tubes for enterprises engaged in hauling freight by highway. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 5, 1945, p. 4541.)

739. February 27, 1945. Resolution No. 310, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires and tubes for certain transportation purposes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 8, 1945, p. 4806.)

740. March 2, 1945. Resolution No. 311, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, declaring 1945

and later models of trucks to be articles of prime necessity and including them under the provisions of Resolution No. 186 of February 17, 1944, as amended by Resolution No. 241 of July 14, 1944 (see Cuba 530 and 621, BULLETIN, June and October 1944.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 8, 1945, p. 4807.)

741. March 2, 1945. Resolution No. 312, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, clarifying Resolution No. 293 of January 19, 1945, with reference to tire and tube rationing (see Cuba 706*b*, BULLETIN, April 1945.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 8, 1945, p. 4807.)

742. March 5, 1945. Resolution No. 315, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires for bus enterprises. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1945, p. 5034.)

743. March 8, 1945. Resolution No. 317, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing requirements to be fulfilled for the procurement of tires for vehicles used in the transportation and distribution of milk. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1945, p. 5220.)

744. March 8, 1945. Resolution No. 318, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, suspending for the period March 20–April 1, 1945, the issuance of permits for the purchase of tires and tubes and cancelling all permits already issued and not yet used. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1945, p. 5221.)

745. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 319, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, adding tallow, impure fats, resin, caustic soda, and soaps of all kinds to the list of articles of prime necessity; requiring declarations of stocks; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1945, p. 5034.)

746. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 320, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires and tubes for use in the distribution of milk and meat. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 16, 1945, p. 5421.)

747. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 321, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 253 of September 12, 1944 (see Cuba 650, BULLETIN, December 1944), which regulated trade, distribution, and consumption of iron and steel materials. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 17, 1945, p. 5511.)

748. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 322, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing the distribution quota for tires and tubes for the first

quarter of 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1945, p. 5742.)

749. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 323, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing a special quota of tires and tubes for public transportation enterprises. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 24, 1945, p. 6023.)

750. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 325, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prohibiting the use of edible oils and fats in the manufacture of soap, but permitting the use of coconut oil imported for that purpose. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 3, 1945, p. 6564.)

751. March 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 808, repealing and amending certain articles of Decrees Nos. 587 and 588 of February 29, 1944 (see Cuba 541 and 542, BULLETIN, June 1944), and including under the provisions of those decrees all natural or juridical persons under Cuban jurisdiction who have suffered or may suffer damage to their persons or properties as a result of enemy action, regardless of where such acts occur or where the properties may be located. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1945, p. 6241.)

752. March 20, 1945. Senate Resolution, to the effect that Cubans who serve during the present war in the armed forces of any nation fighting the Axis shall not lose their citizenship. (April 24, 1945, p. 8097.)

753. March 28, 1945. Resolution No. 326, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, creating a Beef Cattle Purchase and Distribution Commission; outlining its duties and functions; and amending Resolution No. 290 of January 18, 1945 (see Cuba 706, BULLETIN, April 1945) regarding the slaughter of beef cattle. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 4, 1945, p. 6663.)

754. March 28, 1945. Resolution No. 327, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, declaring unused film to be an article of prime necessity; requiring declarations of stocks; creating a National Distributing Commission to control unused film distribution; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 5, 1945, p. 6760.)

755. March 31, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 904, making applicable to the 1945 sugar crop the reduced freight rates on raw sugar acquired by the Commodity Credit Corporation or other agency of the United States, and clarifying certain provisions of Decrees Nos. 1252 of April 21, 1943, 349 of February 19, 1944, and 410 of February 8, 1945 (see Cuba 385, 532, and 726, BULLETIN,

July 1943, June 1944, and May 1945.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 6, 1945, p. 6860.)

756. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 960, authorizing an increase in the producer's price of milk used in the manufacture of condensed or evaporated milk, above the price fixed by Resolution No. 235 of June 15, 1944 of the Office of Price Regulation and Supply (see Cuba 602, BULLETIN, September 1944), and prescribing the increased production requirements for producers in order to qualify for the increased price. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 12, 1945, p. 7272.)

757. April 12, 1945. Resolution, Ministry of State, creating an office for the registry of property affected by action of the Axis, in accordance with Decrees Nos. 587 and 588 of February 29, 1944, and 808 of March 20, 1945 (see Cuba 541 and 542, BULLETIN, June 1944, and 751 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 17, 1945, p. 7585.)

758. May 11, 1945. Presidential Decree authorizing the Government to take over commercial establishments or factories, if considered necessary, in order to insure the orderly development and progress of national production and supply. (*Diario de la Marina*, Habana, May 12, 1945.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

94a. July 13, 1943. Executive Decree No. 1258, adding plumbing fixtures to the list of articles subjected to price control by Decree No. 1043 of March 16, 1943 (see Dominican Republic 78, BULLETIN, July 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 17, 1943.)

124a. March 8, 1944. Executive Decree No. 1768, establishing control over transactions in wood for domestic consumption. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 11, 1944.)

161. March 31, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2551, naming the members of the Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in the Dominican Republic (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 182b below). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 7, 1945.)

162. April 12, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2589, extending for six months the time allowed by Law No. 719 of October 9, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 148, BULLETIN, March 1945) for the registration of trade-marks belonging to firms established in enemy-occupied countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 18, 1945.)

163. April 19, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2618, amending Art. 4 of Decree No. 2543 of December 26, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 160,

BULLETIN, July 1945) regarding procedures for the investment by foreigners of funds in real property. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

164. April 26, 1945. Law No. 879, declaring in effect Law No. 1422 of November 23, 1937, on civil air navigation over Dominican territory and territorial waters, and authorizing the Executive Power to grant special administrative dispensations during the war regarding any requirements of the law that cannot be met because of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

165. April 26, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2632, repealing Decree No. 234 of September 7, 1942, which established control over wood exports (see Dominican Republic 46*e*, BULLETIN, March 1943), and section (a) of Decree No. 2137 of August 23, 1944, which named the person in charge of the Wood Export Control Office. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

166. April 27, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2634, abolishing official control over the following business activities: exportation of tobacco, cacao, and coffee; domestic consumption of wood; exportation of live cattle, dressed meats, poultry, eggs, small fruits, and all kinds of provisions; transactions in bananas, coconuts, nails, and iron implements; the importation of paraffin and its withdrawal from customs; the exportation of corn meal; transactions in construction materials, including cement and plumbing fixtures; the exportation of wheat and peanut bran; and the exportation and importation of metals; and repealing all decrees and regulations that established such control. (See Dominican Republic 46*f*, 46*g*, 124*a*, 29, 121, 85, 112, 99, 78, 127, 107, 94*a*, 145, 36, and 38*b*, BULLETIN, March 1943, above, August 1942, May 1944, August 1943, March 1944, December 1943, July 1943, September 1944, February 1944, above, January 1945, September 1942, and March 1943, respectively.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 28, 1945.)

ECUADOR

93*a*. November 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 631, ratifying certain provisions of the regulations on rice mills (see Ecuador 29, BULLETIN, January 1943) and making other pertinent provisions regarding the rice industry and market. (*Registro Oficial*, January 31, 1945.)

98. January 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 5, limiting rice exportation to firms which agree to bring into the country first-class sugar in quantities equal to the rice they export; fixing the price to be paid by the Government for such

sugar; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Registro Oficial*, February 5, 1945.)

99. January 20, 1945. Legislative Decree repealing Art. 16 of Decree No. 264 of February 23, 1942 (see Ecuador 12, BULLETIN, July 1942), which required purchasers of tires to surrender used tires on receiving new ones. (*Registro Oficial*, February 5, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

78*b*. February 12, 1944. Executive Decree repealing the Executive Decrees of April 15 and September 2, 1943 (see El Salvador 61 and 71, BULLETIN, September 1943 and January 1944) regarding price control; fixing ceiling prices for merchandise and public transportation services at their December 1943 levels; and making comprehensive provisions regarding price fixing and enforcement. (*Diario Oficial*, February 24, 1944.)

89*a*. July 8, 1944. Executive Decree authorizing distillers, in view of the increased cost of raw materials, to charge up to 45 centavos per liter for aguardiente; and repealing previous conflicting legislation. (*Diario Oficial*, July 13, 1944.)

101*a*. January 29, 1945. Executive Decree amending the Executive Decree of February 12, 1944 (see 78*b* above) by establishing stiffer penalties for price control violations. (*Diario Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

105. March 19, 1945. Executive Order No. 204, reorganizing the Local Technical Penicillin Control Committee. (*Diario Oficial*, March 24, 1945.)

106. April 10, 1945. Executive Decree repealing the Executive Decree of July 8, 1944 (see 89*a* above), and authorizing the distillers, in view of the increased cost of raw materials, to charge up to 55 centavos per liter for aguardiente and 1.10 colones per liter for pure alcohol. (*Diario Oficial*, April 25, 1945.)

107. April 16, 1945. Executive Order No. 96, authorizing the Acting Secretary of the Embassy in the United States to sign in the name of the Government of El Salvador the resolutions adopted at the International Civil Aviation Conference (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171*a*, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*Diario Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

GUATEMALA

136*a*. April 17, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 73, approving Decree No. 62, February 14, 1945, of the Revolutionary Junta (see Guatemala 132,

BULLETIN, June 1945), which prescribed penalties for foreigners guilty of activities furthering the interests of totalitarian systems, and for Guatemalans implicated in such activities. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 26, 1945.)

138. April 24, 1945. Presidential Order fixing a maximum price for brown sugar. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 25, 1945.)

139. April 26, 1945. Presidential Order fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for sugar. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 30, 1945.)

140. April 28, 1945. Presidential Order fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for rice, beans, corn, and salt. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 30, 1945.)

HONDURAS

41a. June 15, 1944. Executive Order No. 1961, creating the Penicillin Control Board in the Office of Public Health to regulate the distribution of the monthly quota of penicillin obtained from the United States. (*La Gaceta*, May 11, 1945.)

49. March 8, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 74, reestablishing the effectiveness of Legislative Decree No. 97 of April 9, 1918, which offers premiums and certain tax exemptions to persons raising a sufficient quantity of henequen, cabuya, sisal, or any other variety of fibrous plant in localities approved by the Department of Agriculture. (*La Gaceta*, April 7, 1945.)

MEXICO

247b. June 6, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture and Development, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, July 6, 1944.)

254a. July 3, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, and Development, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

257a. July 15, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture and Development, fixing the sugar cane supply zone of a specified sugar mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1944.)

287a₂. January 25, 1945. Decree amending the decree of July 25, 1942 (see Mexico 63, BUL-

LETIN, November 1942) and authorizing nullification of naturalization papers of persons of any nationality for specified legal violations. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1945.)

288f. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, allowing the patent claim of a specified firm against the Board's Order of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 232a, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

288g. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing with respect to a specified firm the order of April 26, 1944 (see Mexico 244d, BULLETIN, October 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

288b. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, authorizing the confiscation of certain credits of a specified firm in accordance with the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

288i. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, allowing the claim and repealing the order of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 232a, BULLETIN, June 1944) with reference to a specified patent. (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

288j. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing the order of February 23, 1944 (see Mexico 236a, BULLETIN, June 1944) insofar as it applies to a specified person. (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

288k. February 14, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing with reference to a specified person the order of February 23, 1944 (see Mexico 236a, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, April 28, 1945.)

291a₁. March 11, 1945. Decree amending Art. 40 of the Penal Code for the Federal District and Territories, permitting judicial authorities to sell goods under their jurisdiction, unclaimed during a three-year period by their legitimate owners; adopted in view of the scarcity of many kinds of goods resulting from the war. (*Diario Oficial*, May 8, 1945.)

295. April 4, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms in-

cluded under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, May 8, 1945.)

296. April 4, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, nullifying the purchase and sale contract for a specified drug store and continuing in effect the order of April 7, 1943, that provided for the confiscation of the drug store under the terms of the law on enemy property and business (see Mexico 148*b*, BULLETIN, August 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

297. April 10, 1945. Decree supplementing the decree of June 15, 1944 (see Mexico 247*c*, BULLETIN, October 1944), by adding coffee, tea, spices, and tobacco to the list of articles placed under export control. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, May 15, 1945.)

298. April 11, 1945. Decree amending the decree of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 230, BULLETIN, May 1944) to give the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit temporary control over the exportation of wood. (*Diario Oficial*, May 23, 1945.)

299. April 19, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture and Development, amending the resolution of June 6, 1944 (see 247*b* above), which fixed the sugar cane supply zone for a specified sugar mill. (*Diario Oficial*, May 25, 1945.)

NICARAGUA

66. February 28, 1945. Presidential Decree fixing maximum land rents and requiring owners of cultivable land to cultivate it themselves or allow it to be rented for cultivation. Effective during the state of economic emergency (see Nicaragua 57*a*, BULLETIN, November 1944). (*La Gaceta*, March 6, 1945.)

PANAMA

111*a*. June 21, 1944. Decree No. 49, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, regulating the sale of trucks throughout the Republic. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1945.)

121. March 15, 1945. Decree No. 60, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, amending Decree No. 7 of September 16, 1942 (see Panama 37, BULLETIN, February 1943) and fixing a new price for bottled milk in Panama City. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

122. April 7, 1945. Resolution, General Traffic Inspection Office, restricting the transit of public

motor vehicle passenger conveyances during certain hours of each day, in view of the shortage of tires and gasoline. (*La Estrella de Panamá*, Panama, April 8, 1945.)

123. April 9, 1945. Decree No. 61, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, amending Decree No. 49 of June 21, 1944 (see 111*a* above) by making it applicable also to the sale of truck bodies. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

59*d*. October 26, 1944. Note, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, announcing the reestablishment of diplomatic, commercial, and financial relations with Italy. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

72*a*. February 8, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7190, declaring the Republic of Paraguay to be in a state of war with the Axis Powers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

72*b*. February 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7226, proclaiming the adherence of Paraguay to the Declaration by United Nations and authorizing the Ambassador of Paraguay in Washington to sign the document (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1 and 176, BULLETIN, April 1942 and May 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1945.)

74. February 26, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7420, establishing a basic price for cotton of the 1945 crop. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 27, 1945.)

75. February 28, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7461, authorizing the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay (*Banco Agrícola del Paraguay*) to acquire at fixed prices the agricultural products mentioned in Decrees Nos. 6835 of January 16, 1945, and 7420 of February 26, 1945 (see Paraguay 72, BULLETIN, June 1945 and 72*a* above), and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 28, 1945.)

76. March 9, 1945. Resolution, Rationing Department, suspending the sale of specified articles of prime necessity that fall within the regulations imposed by Presidential Decree No. 11,394 of March 5, 1942 (see Paraguay 9, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*El País*, Asunción, March 17, 1945.)

77. March 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7684, requiring all owners of topographical instruments of all kinds to make a sworn declaration of such equipment before the Ministry of National Defense. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1945.)

78. March 19, 1945. Resolution No. 36, General Office of Commerce, Ministry of Industries and Commerce, prescribing rules and regulations governing the sale of textiles and dry goods. (*El País*, Asunción, March 20, 1945.)

79. March 23, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7867, establishing a system of control over properties belonging to organizations or persons resident or domiciled in Axis or Axis-occupied countries and prescribing pertinent rules and regulations. (*El País*, Asunción, March 26, 1945.)

PERU

140*a*₁. October 14, 1944. Supreme Decree provisionally increasing wages for private employees in the provinces other than Lima and Callao to enable them to meet the increased costs of living. (Mentioned in *El Peruano*, April 5, 1945.)

148. March 29, 1945. Supreme Decree increasing wages of textile workers in the province of Lima and providing for readjustments at regular intervals in the future to keep wages commensurate with the cost of living. (*El Peruano*, April 5, 1945.)

149. March 31, 1945. Supreme Decree, repealing the Supreme Decree of October 14, 1944 (see 140*a*₁ above) and fixing definitive increased wage scales for private employees in the provinces other than Lima and Callao. (*El Peruano*, April 5, 1945.)

150. April 30, 1945. Supreme Decree further regulating transfers of Axis property and business interests in view of the experience acquired in the execution of laws Nos. 9592 and 9952 of June 26, 1942 and March 24, 1944 (see Peru 18 and 114, BULLETIN, October 1942 and August 1944). (*El Peruano*, May 8, 1945.)

URUGUAY

235*i*. October 4, 1944. Presidential decree naming a commission to cooperate with the visiting UNRRA delegation. (*Diario Oficial*, October 11, 1944.)

238*a*. November 8, 1944. Presidential decree naming additional persons to collaborate with the visiting UNRRA delegation. (*Diario Oficial*, December 11, 1944.)

242*a*. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4037, amending Decree No. 2518 of August 12, 1943 (see Uruguay 142, BULLETIN, January 1944) with reference to the limits of Security

Zone No. 2. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, March 14, 1945.)

250*a*. February 7, 1945. Presidential decree approving the work accomplished by the commission designated by the decree of October 4, 1944, to cooperate with the UNRRA delegation (see 235*i* and 238*a* above); approving the Administrative Agreement proposed by the UNRRA delegation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171*a* below); and naming the members of the Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Uruguay. (*Diario Oficial*, February 20, 1945.)

251*a*. February 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3100/944, fixing maximum prices for various types of iron (bars, rods, sheets, etc.). (*Diario Oficial*, March 3, 1945.)

251*b*. February 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 106/945, prescribing standards, rules, and regulations for the handling and selling of the 1944-45 wheat crop. (*Diario Oficial*, March 5, 1945.)

251*c*. February 22, 1945. Law authorizing the President to declare war on Germany and Japan. (*Diario Oficial*, March 1, 1945.)

251*d*. February 22, 1945. Presidential decree declaring the existence of a state of war between the Republic of Uruguay and Germany and Japan. (*Diario Oficial*, March 1, 1945.)

254. February 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3295/943, prescribing measures to assure an adequate supply of eggs. (*Diario Oficial*, March 3, 1945.)

255. February 28, 1945. Presidential Decree establishing a commission to test domestic tires to determine their efficiency in comparison with foreign tires. (*Diario Oficial*, March 6, 1945.)

256. March 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 367/945, placing partial restrictions on the exportation of sheep and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1945.)

257. March 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 106/945, creating an Advisory and Control Commission for Trade in Wheat and its Derivatives (*Comisión de Asesoramiento y Contralor del Comercio del Trigo y sus Derivados*), and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diario Oficial*, March 14, 1945.)

258. March 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 5270/44, making further provisions regarding the limits of Security Zone No. 2 (see Uruguay 142,

BULLETIN, January 1944, and 242*a* above). (*Diario Oficial*, March 14, 1945.)

259. March 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 325/945, fixing the price for sugar used for industrial purposes. (*Diario Oficial*, March 16, 1945.)

260. March 16, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 607/944, amending the decree of March 10, 1944 (see Uruguay 195*a*, BULLETIN, September 1944), regarding the duties of the commission charged with studying and proposing a rationing plan for imported motor vehicles. (*Diario Oficial*, March 24, 1945.)

261. March 16, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 1730/944, prescribing procedures to be followed by the Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Uruguay (see 250*a* above and 171*3*, Bilateral and Multilateral Measures below). (*Diario Oficial*, April 3, 1945.)

262. March 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 837/945, fixing prices for bricks. (*Diario Oficial*, April 2, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

206. March 15, 1945. Resolution No. 28, National Supply Commission, regulating urban real estate rents and repealing Resolution No. 66, National Price Regulation Board, January 20, 1943 (see Venezuela 87*c*, BULLETIN, July 1943), which fixed maximum rents. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 15, 1945.)

207. March 15, 1945. Resolution No. 29, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling wholesale and retail prices for specified drugs, medicines, and medical supplies in specified districts, and making provisions to insure enforcement. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 15, 1945.)

208. April 7, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, ordering the liquidation of a specified firm in Maracaibo in accordance with the provisions of Executive Decree No. 241 of November 9, 1943 and the Joint Resolution of April 24, 1944 (see Venezuela 126 and 151*a*, BULLETIN, April 1944 and June 1945), regarding disposition of property of governments or nationals of states at war with any American nation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 7, 1945.)

209. April 26, 1945. Resolution No. 31, National Supply Commission, fixing distribution quotas and ceiling prices for truck and bus tires

and tubes imported from Brazil in March 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

210. April 27, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Treasury and Health and Social Welfare, repealing, in view of the increased production of penicillin, the Resolution of July 11, 1944 (see Venezuela 161, BULLETIN, November 1944), which restricted its importation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

211. April 30, 1945. Resolution No. 32, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling prices for penicillin and sodium penicillin in specified districts and making provisions to insure enforcement. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

170*a*. November 2, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Peru and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Peru. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement* from UNRRA headquarters in Washington, June 26, 1945.)

171*1*. November 10, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Chile and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Chile. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement* from UNRRA headquarters in Washington, June 26, 1945.)

171*2*. November 16, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Bolivia and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Bolivia. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement* from UNRRA headquarters in Washington, June 26, 1945.)

171*3*. November 27, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Uruguay and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Uruguay. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, Uruguay, February 20, 1945; date of agreement obtained from UNRRA headquarters in Washington.)

171*4*. December 2, 1944. Agreement between the Governments of Paraguay and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Paraguay. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement* from UNRRA headquarters in Washington, June 26, 1945.)

172₂. December 12, 1944. Agreement between the Government of Venezuela and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Venezuela. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement from UNRRA headquarters in Washington*, June 26, 1945.)

183₁. March 23, 1945. Administrative Agreement between the Government of the Dominican Republic and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in the Dominican Republic. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, Dominican Republic, April 7, 1945.)

183₂. March 27, 1945. Agreement between the Government of Haiti and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Haiti. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement from UNRRA headquarters in Washington*, June 26, 1945.)

183₃. March 31, 1945. Exchange of notes between the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela and the Chargé d'Affaires of the United States Embassy in Caracas, by which the rubber price agreement effected by an exchange of notes between the two governments dated September 27, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 166_b, BULLETIN, February 1945) is extended for the year March 31, 1945–March 31, 1946. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Venezuela, April 7, 1945.)

196. May 1, 1945. Agreement between the Government of Panama and UNRRA for the establishment of a Mixed Commission for UNRRA Procurement in Panama. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944.) (*Statement from UNRRA headquarters in Washington*, June 26, 1945.)

197. May 4, 1945. Signature by Peru of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 27, 1945.)

198. May 8, 1945. Unconditional surrender of Germany to Great Britain, the United States, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Surrender documents signed at General Eisenhower's headquarters at Reims, France, and ratified before the Allied and Red Army High Commands at Berlin. Effective at 6:01 p. m., May 8, 1945, Eastern War Time. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 13, 1945.)

199. May 8, 1945. Agreement signed in London by representatives of Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, the United States, and the United Kingdom establishing a provisional organization for European inland transportation. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 13, 1945.)

200. May 8, 1945. Ratification and approval by the Republic of Haiti of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 10, 1945.)

201. May 9, 1945. Signature by El Salvador of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, the International Air Service Transit Agreement (Two Freedoms), and the International Air Transport Agreement (Five Freedoms). (See Bilateral and Multilateral Agreements, 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 20, 1945.)

202. May 14, 1945. Signature by Panama of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Agreements 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 20, 1945.)

203. May 21, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Guatemala providing for the detail of a military mission by the United States to serve in Guatemala; effective for four years from date of signature. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 27, 1945.)

204. May 22, 1945. Acceptance by Mexico of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures, 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945), to be put into force provisionally until it is approved by the Senate of the Republic in accordance with Mexican constitutional procedure. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 27, 1945.)

205. May 24, 1945. Signature by Colombia of the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures, 171_a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 27, 1945.)

206. May 24, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Chile providing for the detail of a naval mission by the United States to serve in Chile; effective for three years from date of signature. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, May 27, 1945.)

207. May 29, 1945. Signature by Brazil of the Convention on International Civil Aviation and the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 3, 1945.)

208. June 5, 1945. Note from the Ambassador of Chile in Washington to the Secretary of State of the United States advising that the signature affixed by Chile to the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation constitutes and acceptance of the agreement on the part of Chile and a valid and binding obligation upon it. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 10, 1945.)

209. June 5, 1945. Declaration, signed at Berlin, regarding the defeat of Germany and the assumption of supreme authority with respect to Germany by the Governments of the United States, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, and the Provisional Government of the French Republic. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 10, 1945.)

210. June 9, 1945. Agreement between the

United States, British, and Yugoslav Governments on the temporary military administration of the territory of Venezia Giulia, including Trieste. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 10, 1945.)

211. June 15, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Argentina for a two-way exchange of fuel oil for flaxseed and other oil-bearing agricultural products, covering mainly the surplus from the 1944-45 and 1945-46 Argentine crops of flaxseed and its products including linseed oil, sunflower seed, rape seed, and peanut oil, in amounts equivalent to the heat content of fuel oil received by Argentina; this agreement will make available to liberated areas in Europe and to the United States Argentine vegetable oils that were hitherto being burned to meet Argentina's fuel needs. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 17, 1945.)

212. June 26, 1945. The Charter of the United Nations, adopted at San Francisco, California, by delegates of the fifty nations represented at the United Nations Conference on International Organization (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 193, BULLETIN, July 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 24, 1945.)



Pan American News

Message of the President of Costa Rica

Dr. Teodoro Picado reported on his first year as president of Costa Rica to the new session of the Congress on May 1, 1945. He spoke first of the country's foreign policy, of the opening of relations with newly liberated European nations after consultation with the other American republics, and of the tightening of Costa Rica's naturalization laws in accordance with recommendations of the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense of the Continent. He reported on Costa Rica's participation in the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace at Mexico City, and on the modifications of the Dumbarton Oaks proposals prepared by Costa Rica's Foreign Office for submission to the United Nations Conference on International Organization, which was beginning its labors in San Francisco at the time of the message. Costa Rica sealed her friendship with a neighbor at the boundary ceremonies of September 18, 1944, when Costa Rica and Panama, with Chile as arbitrator, formally accepted the boundary drawn in accordance with the treaty of May 1, 1941. Costa Rica had renewed adherence to the International Labor Office, and was represented at the conference of May 1944 in Philadelphia.

President Picado was able to report some small advance in his attack on the serious financial problems which confronted his administration, although direct taxes still provided less than three percent of the nation's revenue, and expenses continued to exceed income. Increases in meager teachers' sal-

aries, improvements on the Pacific railroad, and various measures of agricultural promotion accounted for much of the deficit. The year's expenses were held to 67,017,945 colones,¹ which represented a reduction of four and a half million colones from last year's figure. Some of this saving was accomplished by cutting down road projects in regions where the laborers could be absorbed into farm work; but in general, the president explained, reduction in government employment could not be resorted to as an economy measure because so many of the government employees were clerical workers who would be able to find no other work.

Disbursements were being more carefully controlled as a result of the law of June 18, 1944, which required that annual appropriations be allowed in equal monthly installments, and that no payment be honored against any other than the item for which it had been authorized. Further restraint was applied by the law of August 10, 1944, which required that every office spending government money publish a full report of all its expenditures in the official paper, *La Gaceta*, with a balanced accounting at least twice a year.

National income for the year showed a slight increase, 52,827,108 colones, as compared with 50,350,221 for last year. Only 1,248,718 colones of this amount had been raised by direct taxation.

Costa Rica's circulating medium (total of current bank deposits plus cash in the hands of the public) has increased during the war years from 56,247,929 colones to 155,590,043 colones. With this has come an

¹The exchange value of the colón on March 31, 1945 was \$0.1779.

increased cost of living that constitutes a pressing problem. Taking 1936 figures as a base, the cost of living in Costa Rica at the outbreak of the war stood at 108 percent, but by the close of 1944 it had reached 189. During the year of the report the problem was variously attacked through loans to small farmers, through promotion of consumers' cooperatives, especially low-cost housing cooperatives, and through expansion of the land distribution policy by which the government buys or rents unused land and parcels it out for cultivation.

The Department of Education had organized a pre-school division, and President Picado expressed a hope that there would soon be a kindergarten connected with every school. In every grade teachers were giving special care to the fostering of school and home gardens. Five more supplementary schools were opened during the year, to make it possible for children in various remote localities to begin their secondary course without going far from home. Educational opportunities for teachers were enlarged through cooperation with the Inter-American Educational Foundation, and through a law providing limited salary grants for teachers during study abroad.

The National Geographic Institute was opened at the beginning of 1945, to serve as a center for studies in geography, geodesy, and geophysics, and to arrange for the drawing of official local maps.

The Department of Public Health, although handicapped by lack of funds and of needed materials, managed to accomplish some rural sanitation work, to immunize many individuals against smallpox, typhoid, and diphtheria, and to continue its school clinics and its distribution of shoes as protection against hookworm. In the course of the year it dealt with a widespread epidemic of infantile paralysis, and also began a campaign against adulteration of food and drugs.

The Department of Agriculture continued its important work of soil analysis, made studies of erosion, conducted a promising experiment in the mechanization of sugar growing, and provided seed, seedlings, and practical personal help for the school and home gardens through which the government is trying to increase production and consumption of vegetables. It prepared and distributed insecticides, and demonstrated them in the field. It experimented with soil fumigation; and it undertook in Zarcero an irrigation project which soon supplied water for more than 1200 acres and may point the way to great improvement in Costa Rican farming.

A new industrial section was organized in September, and began a census of industries covering employment, methods of work, and use of domestic and imported raw materials.

The Department of Labor and Social Welfare spent an active year carrying out the provisions of the Labor Code of 1943. Office consultations brought a solution to many labor disputes, and others were settled by visits from traveling inspectors. The Department was proud to report that, although its conciliatory efforts do not bar a dissatisfied party from resort to the courts, ninety percent of the individual cases handled had been satisfactorily settled without court action. Most of the individual cases turned on dismissals, hour and wage adjustments, or holiday pay, while group conflicts were more likely to involve wage scales. On group conflicts, too, the record was good, and there had been only three strikes during the year.

In addition to its conciliation work, the Department cooperated with employers in formulating working rules consistent with the Labor Code. It also gave much attention to the figuring of minimum wages equitably adjusted to the cost of living and to the expenses of agriculture and industry.

Argentine foreign trade in 1944

Argentine foreign commerce in 1944 resulted in an unprecedentedly favorable trade balance of 1,345,727,000 pesos, according to figures issued by the National Statistics and Census Bureau. Exports showed an increase

over the preceding year of 7.3 percent in value and 15.3 percent in tonnage. Imports also increased, to the extent of 6.9 percent in value and 7 percent in tonnage.

The increased volume of exports was especially marked in cereals and flax; oleaginous seeds (excluding linseed) and their

Volume and invoice value of imports by groups¹

Description	Quantity (thousands of tons)		Invoice value (thousands of paper pesos)	
	1943	1944	1943	1944
Textiles	63	77	223,479	261,964
Wood and manufactures	400	444	98,548	128,941
Food	166	260	67,401	109,755
Paper, cardboard, etc.	146	158	89,793	94,252
Chemicals, drugs, oils, paints	201	112	106,770	87,186
Fuels and lubricants	1,068	1,026	89,999	82,039
Iron and manufactures	76	71	56,639	55,570
Miscellaneous	18	14	56,250	44,199
Non-ferrous metals and manufactures	50	50	43,950	41,200
Stone, earth, glass, and pottery	1,482	1,718	40,979	36,800
Machinery and vehicles	16	15	37,364	29,957
Tobacco and manufactures	9	9	18,021	22,204
Rubber and manufactures	1	1	5,555	7,301
Beverages	3	2	7,300	5,786
Total	3,699	3,957	942,048	1,007,154

¹ Based on charts in *Boletín de la Dirección General de Estadística y Censos de la Nación*, Buenos Aires, January 30, 1945.

Exports by groups¹

Description	Quantity (thousands of tons)		Value (thousands of paper pesos)	
	1943	1944	1943	1944
Live-stock products	1,338	1,497	1,157,078	1,340,164
Cattle on the hoof	138	130	42,611	46,473
Meat	658	786	593,651	729,745
Hides	149	142	180,647	193,003
Wool	89	90	166,705	146,517
Dairy products	58	67	63,470	71,554
By-products and residues	246	282	109,994	152,872
Agricultural products	3,317	4,131	496,902	596,141
Cereals and linseed	2,901	3,373	343,081	380,985
Wheat flour and by-products	101	231	11,892	29,904
Other products	315	527	141,929	185,252
Forest products	191	146	45,953	39,810
Minerals	277	183	43,007	26,338
Furs & fish	2	1	24,230	9,589
Miscellaneous manufactures	197	176	425,094	340,839
Total	5,322	6,134	2,192,264	2,352,881

¹ Based on charts in *Boletín de la Dirección General de Estadística y Censos de la Nación*, Buenos Aires, January 20, 1945.

Argentine foreign trade with Brazil, United Kingdom, and United States¹

Argentine exports to	Real values (millions of paper pesos)		Percentage of total	
	1943	1944	1943	1944
United Kingdom	780.1	871.2	35.6	37.
United States	532.7	521.3	24.3	22.2
Brazil	143.2	219.8	6.5	9.3
Total	1,456.	1,612.3	67.4	68.5

Argentine imports from	Invoice values (millions of paper pesos)		Percentage of total	
	1943	1944	1943	1944
Brazil	201.5	344.	21.4	34.2
United States	179.3	151.9	19.	15.1
United Kingdom	194.5	80.4	20.6	8.
Total	575.3	576.3	61.	57.3

¹ Figures taken from *Boletín de la Dirección General de Estadística y Censos de la Nación*, Buenos Aires, January 30, 1945.

oils; flour and wheat by-products; and meats. Meat exports showed the largest value for any single item; and livestock products, including meat, represented some 57 percent of the total value of exports.

In imports the largest item by value was textiles and textile manufactures. The greatest increase, both in value and in tonnage, was registered by foodstuffs.

Argentina's three biggest customers during 1944 were the United Kingdom, the United States, and Brazil, in the order named. Together they accounted for 68 percent of Argentina's export trade. The same three, in reverse order, provided Argentina with approximately 57 percent of its imports.

Total value of exports in 1944 was 2,352,881,000 pesos; and of imports, 1,007,154,000 pesos.

Reorganization of Salvadorean ministries

A reorganization of the executive branch of the government of El Salvador was ordered by Decree No. 3 of February 28, 1945, pub-

lished in the *Diario Oficial* of March 5. The Decree places the administration of public affairs under five Ministries: Foreign Affairs, Interior, Economy, Culture, and Defense. The Ministry of the Interior includes the divisions of Government, Justice, Social Welfare, and Communications and Public Works. The Ministry of Economy is divided into the offices of Treasury and Public Credit, Labor, Agriculture, and Industry and Commerce. The Ministry of Defense has two branches, National Defense and Public Security.

The decree provides that the Secretary General of the Office of the President shall have the rank of minister, and shall act as secretary at cabinet meetings.

Cuba's foreign trade in 1944

The Ministry of Commerce of Cuba recently published statistics on the republic's foreign trade during 1944. Exports for the year reached the high mark of \$427,058,300, 4.6 percent more than double the value of imports, which totaled \$208,648,450.

The war and its consequent scarcity of transportation facilities and disappearance of customary markets have brought about a gradual concentration of Cuba's foreign trade, on both the export and import side, with the United States. In 1933 Cuba acquired 53.5 percent of its imports from the United States and the latter took 67.6 per-

cent of Cuba's exports. In 1944 Cuban imports from the United States were 80.9 percent of the total, and Cuban exports to the United States were 89.0 percent of the total.

The following tables, covering the last twelve years of Cuban foreign trade, show the development of this trend:

Imports
(in thousands of dollars)

Year	Total	From the United States		From other countries	
		Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
1933	\$ 42,362	\$ 22,674	53.5	\$19,688	47.5
1934	73,418	41,225	56.2	32,193	43.8
1935	95,465	55,686	58.3	39,779	41.7
1936	103,215	66,494	64.4	36,721	35.6
1937	129,572	88,847	68.6	40,725	31.4
1938	106,007	75,152	70.8	31,355	29.2
1939	105,862	78,381	74.0	27,481	26.0
1940	103,860	81,042	78.0	22,808	22.0
1941	133,860	117,111	87.5	16,749	12.5
1942	146,738	123,163	83.9	23,575	16.1
1943	177,436	138,565	78.1	38,872	21.9
1944	208,648	168,841	80.9	39,807	19.1

Exports
(in thousands of dollars)

Year	Total	To the United States		To other countries	
		Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
1933	\$ 84,391	\$ 57,112	67.6	\$27,279	32.4
1934	107,746	81,093	75.2	26,653	24.8
1935	128,017	101,534	79.3	26,483	20.7
1936	154,805	121,899	78.7	32,906	22.3
1937	186,071	150,149	80.6	35,922	19.4
1938	142,678	108,363	75.9	34,295	24.1
1939	147,676	111,190	75.3	36,486	24.7
1940	127,288	104,905	82.4	22,383	17.6
1941	211,508	181,220	85.7	30,288	14.3
1942	182,375	164,109	90.0	18,287	10.0
1943	350,623	295,620	84.3	55,003	15.7
1944	427,058	379,975	89.0	47,083	11.0

The United States, however, has not been the only American nation to assume an increasingly strong position in the Cuban foreign trade picture during the war years. The rest of the American Continent has also begun to buy more Cuban goods and to send more products to Cuba.

The value of Cuban imports from American nations, excluding the United States, which ranged annually from 4 to 6 million dollars during the years 1935-40, rose to 8.3 million in 1941, to 16 million in 1942, and then increased sharply to 28 million in the years 1943 and 1944. The value of

Cuba's exports to American nations, excluding the United States, which averaged 2 to 3 million dollars a year in the period 1935-40, reached 8.7 million in 1941 and 8.8 million in 1942. In 1943 the figure increased to 14 million, 59.3 percent above the previous year's total, and while there was a drop in 1944 to slightly less than 11 million, the total was still almost 400 percent above the pre-war average level.

Figures covering this phase of Cuba's foreign trade for the years 1935-44 are given in the following table:

Cuba's foreign trade with the American nations (exclusive of the United States)

(In thousands of dollars)

Year	Imports	Exports
1935	\$ 6,145	\$ 2,238
1936	5,682	2,759
1937	6,870	2,760
1938	4,330	2,994
1939	5,165	3,713
1940	5,696	3,618
1941	8,315	8,762
1942	16,021	8,840
1943	28,007	14,085
1944	28,112	10,962

Bolivian oil development¹

Once drilling machinery and other essential equipment again become available, Bolivia plans to begin intensive development of its oil resources. The present oil-producing area of Bolivia is in the Southern part of the country, in the Eastern sub-Andean region. Although several oil fields have been developed there, only three are being actively

exploited at the present time: those at Bermejo, Sanandita, and Camiri.

The Bermejo field, which is very close to the Argentine border, has four wells operating now, with a total production which averages 350 barrels per day. The crude oil obtained there, when refined by the cracking process, is excellent for the manufacture of high-octane gasoline and of lubricants.

At the Sanandita field, to the east of Bermejo, seventeen wells have been drilled; but oil is being taken from only ten of them, since transportation facilities are not sufficient to handle a larger production. Some 300 barrels of oil a day now come out of Sanandita. This field has a topping plant with a capacity of 700 barrels a day which produces gasoline, kerosene, Diesel oil, and fuel oil.

Some 170 miles north of Sanandita lies the most important Bolivian oil field yet developed, Camiri. Also handicapped by its isolated position, the Camiri field now is kept down to a production of 300 barrels a day, but possibilities for its future development are immense, since its reserves have been estimated at 21,000,000 barrels. Camiri also is equipped with a topping plant. Its crude oil, under primary distillation, yields 63 percent gasoline.

The Y.P.F.B. (*Yacimientos Petroliferos Fiscales Bolivianos*), or Bolivian Government Petroleum Bureau, the agency created to take over exploitation of the expropriated Bolivian Standard Oil holdings, plans to begin its expansion of the Camiri field by drilling thirty new wells.

Obtaining equipment for increased exploitation is of course a problem caused by temporary conditions. But the major difficulty holding back oil production in Bolivia is still that of transportation. The oil-producing region in the south is separated from La Paz and other consuming centers by the tremendous barrier of the Andes,

¹ The information in this note was taken from two articles in the May-June 1945 issue of "Petróleo Interamericano," *Bolivia Plans Extension of Oil Activities*, by Guillermo Mariaca, and *Bolivia Handicapped by Inadequate Transportation*, by Henry D. Ralph; and from an article by Guillermo Mariaca in the February 1945 "Boletín del Instituto Sudamericano del Petróleo," *Reseña sobre la Industria Petrolífera de Bolivia*.

Argentina and then up the west side of the Andes to La Paz.

Camiri is not close to any rail connections. It is 205 miles south of Santa Cruz and 286 miles east of Sucre, communication in both cases being over dirt roads.

The Y.P.F.B. has plans for the construction of a pipeline with a capacity of 10,000 barrels to carry crude oil from Camiri to Santa Cruz, where a refinery would be built. Bolivia and Brazil are working jointly on the project of connecting Santa Cruz by rail with Corumbá (400 miles away), Brazilian port on the Paraguay River, to which an extension of the Santos-Pôrto Esperança line is now being built. At the same time, a proposed paved highway from Santa Cruz would connect with the railroad line at Cochabamba, giving an outlet to La Paz and to the Pacific. Argentina has a concession to build a railroad from Yacuiba, on its northern border, through Camiri to Santa Cruz, with a branch line from Camiri to Sucre; but no work has been undertaken on this project.

Another promising oil field of the sub-Andean region is located at Saipurú, between Camiri and Santa Cruz. A Bolivian-Brazilian Mixed Commission, organized for the purpose of finding and developing new oil fields in the region north of the Parapetí River, is planning to begin work there in September. After the war, when increased equipment will permit experimentation on a larger scale, the Commission will begin its hunt for new oil fields. Each government has promised it an equal sum for wildcatting and development work.

Brazilian cotton textiles for the United Nations

The Combined Production and Resources Board recently announced in Washington that an understanding had been reached between the Board's Textile Committee and

the Executive Textile Commission of Brazil whereby Brazil is committed to provide for export some 300,000,000 additional yards of cotton textiles during the next twelve months. Brazil's contribution to relief of the serious cotton textile situation of the United Nations was already an important item, 1945 commitments having previously called for about 200,000,000 yards.

Brazil is supplying cotton fabrics as a part of its contribution to the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration and now has contracts with that organization for the delivery of 90,000,000 yards in a year's time. An agreement with the CPRB calls for 80,000,000 yards to be purchased for liberated areas, chiefly in the Far East. The French Government also has placed orders for 60,000,000 yards, and Brazil hopes to make another 60,000,000 yards available for other markets. This brings the grand total close to the country's production goal of 500,000,000 yards.

Edible oils in Chile

Production of olive oil in Chile will receive special attention during the next six years, when the Ministry of Agriculture plans to see that from 5,000 to 12,000 acres a year are newly planted to olive trees. Before the war olive, soy bean, and sunflower seed oils were imported into Chile in quantities which increased very rapidly during the 1930's. After the war began to interfere with shipping, cultivation of sunflower seed was multiplied several times over, and soy bean production was stimulated; with these increased crops and with the new olive plantings Chile expects not only to become independent of foreign sources of edible oils but even to produce a surplus for export. At the same time the olive plantations, since they do not require irrigation, will make profitable use of land which was formerly unproductive.

Agricultural weather stations in Argentina

A promising step is being taken to protect and foment Argentine agriculture in the creation of a chain of meteorological stations to operate in conjunction with agricultural experiment stations and schools of agriculture in 33 different regions of the country.

At these stations studies will be made of climate and other local meteorological factors affecting farming. One of the purposes of these observations will be to determine the zones best fitted by climate for various crops, with a view toward eventual planned cultivation. Regions free from plagues, pests, and plant diseases will be specially noted. These studies will also be of benefit to the cattle raisers, since they will show what climates are most propitious to the raising of good forage, and the relation between climate and outbreaks and virulence of cattle diseases and parasites.

The meteorological stations will be able to offer protective services to farmers by warning of imminent freezes, hailstorms, and other climatic adversities which endanger crops.

The meteorological services of the Ministry of Agriculture, heretofore carried out in different divisions, will now be concentrated in a single office.

Peruvian alpaca

United States aviators flying at great altitudes are fortunate in having jackets lined with alpaca fleece to help protect them from the cold.

This wool comes from high in the Andes, where flocks of alpacas are kept by the Indians. There are some in Chile and Bolivia, but Peru is the leader in the alpaca industry. The alpaca looks very much like a llama, and its fleece is noted for its fineness,

strength, and luster. Black and brown are the predominating colors, but there may also be white, gray, fawn, yellow, red, and pinto alpacas all in the same flock.

An alpaca generally has its first shearing when it is two years old, at which time its hair should be from six to nine inches long. If a three or four year interval is allowed between shearings, the strands may be as long as fifteen inches. Shearing time usually comes in December. The Indians always wait to do the shearing until the rains have brought up abundant forage so that the animals will be able to recover quickly from the loss of their fleece.

To collecting centers in the High Sierras such as Puno, Juliaca, Cuzco, and Sicuani, the Indians bring the alpaca wool to sell to the agents of the big companies in Arequipa. Reluctant to accept paper money, the Indians may sell the wool for silver or trade it for merchandise. The basic price paid them at present is 160 soles per quintal, or about \$24.80 for 101.4 pounds; there may be premiums or discounts according to the quality of the wool. White fleeces are regarded as especially choice because they can be dyed any color desired.

From the collecting centers the fleeces are brought down to Arequipa for sorting and grading, then sent by rail to the port of Mollendo.

In 1943 Peru exported a total of 5,530,000 pounds of alpaca wool. Before the war Great Britain and the United States bought about equal amounts, and Germany was also an important customer. Since the war the United States has become the chief importer. The United States levies an import duty of 18 cents a pound on alpaca wool, and the Peruvian export tax is from 1½ to 3 cents a pound. A Peruvian Supreme Decree issued on February 17, 1945 provides that a minimum export tax of 1 sol (approximately \$.15 in United States money)

will be levied on all objects manufactured from skins of the alpaca, llama, sheep, fox, viscacha, and other native animals.

Although the alpaca is chiefly noted for its fine wool, its flesh is very palatable. When an alpaca reaches the age of six, it is killed and eaten.

Regional agricultural offices in Paraguay

A move toward decentralization of the technical services of the Paraguayan Office of Agriculture—services that should be directly linked to farm problems and operations and within ready reach of the nation's farmers—was made by a recent resolution of the Ministry of Agriculture. Five new regional offices were established, at Carmen del Paraná, Pilar, Paraguari, San Pedro, and Eusebio Ayala.

Each office has a chief, an agricultural inspector, and as many assistants and instructors as circumstances and needs make feasible, all of recognized professional training, capacity, experience, and aptitude. The functions of the regional offices as outlined in the resolution embrace instruction and guidance, visits of inspection, supervision over compliance with national agricultural plans, meetings for the exchange of ideas on agricultural problems, neighborhood meetings with farmers for discussion and instruction, visits to individual farms to help in the solution of personal farm problems, and the collection of statistics on weather, crops, and the sale or distribution of seeds and farm tools and implements by local branches of the Agricultural Bank.

The Government hopes by thus broadening the scope of its technical agricultural services to give the nation's farmers a maximum of effective assistance that will lead to an increase in the country's total agricultural production.

University exchanges between Colombia and Brazil

Colombia and Brazil have signed an educational exchange agreement to promote closer relations among the universities of the two countries. Exchange visits of professors and graduate students will be made easy, each country will recognize degrees conferred in the other, and each will award five yearly fellowships to students from the other, three to university students and two to students from agricultural centers.

Government service by Mexican Agricultural School graduates

Students entering Mexico's National School of Agriculture must now present, as a prerequisite for admission, a declaration in writing promising that they will serve the Government in their professional capacity for a period of three years after their graduation. This requirement, set forth in a presidential decree published early in 1945, was also made applicable to second, third, and fourth year students already attending the school.

In recent years the Government has spent considerable money in improving the agricultural school's educational services, and students are now able to acquire technical preparation of high quality in their chosen work. National rural economic policy to a large extent makes the career of agronomist a state profession, since the Government's agricultural development plans determine both the increase and the broadening of opportunities in that field. The progress of national agriculture, and especially the economic development of ejidal zones, need a constantly increasing number of agricultural experts, and the Government therefore felt justified in requiring at least three years of professional service by those who receive the benefits of the agricultural school's present highly developed course of study.

Development of Ecuadorean resources

A plan for the immediate development of Ecuador's national resources and industry was approved by the President on January 23, 1945. Divided into three parts covering agriculture, livestock, and industry, the plan goes into detail on such aspects of national economy as increased production of crops already under cultivation, the introduction of new crops to replace present im-

ports, fixed acreage, seeds, agricultural equipment, veterinary and other services for livestock and poultry, exports and imports of certain products, establishment of new industries, cooperatives, and credit facilities.

The plan covering the intensification of agricultural and livestock production, directed toward making the country more self-sufficient with respect to a number of commodities which at present must be imported in large and costly quantities, can be conveniently summarized as follows:

Product	Present average annual imports		Possibilities for new or additional national production to cover present imports		
	Amount (quintals) ¹	Value (sucres) ²	Area to be sown (hectares) ³	Prospective output	Funds and equipment needed to put plan in operation (sucres) ²
Edible oils	5,000	838,000	600 (peanuts) 300 (sesame)	22,000 quintals raw materials; 6,000 quintals oil	743,000 for cultivation; 100,000 for oil extracting plant
Oats	19,000	660,000	1,600	19,000 quintals	640,000
Sugar	400,000	4,500	225,000 tons sugar cane; 400,000 quintals sugar	4,500,000 for cultivation; 14,000,000 for mill equipment
Flour	306,000	8,300,000	31,000 (wheat) 8,000 (rye)	372,000 quintals wheat; 220,000 quintals wheat flour 144,000 quintals rye; 80,000 quintals rye flour	9,500,000 for wheat cultivation; 1,600,000 for rye; 1,200,000 for 20 tractors and other implements
Cotton	30,000	5,600,000	5,000	100,000 quintals cotton; 33,000 quintals ginned cotton	2,000,000
Lard	38,000	5,000,000	60,000 pigs; 38,000 quintals lard	5,000,000 for pig raising; 3,000,000 for processing plant
Powdered milk.	2,100	525,000	1,627,000 liters of milk; 2,100 quintals powdered milk	4,000,000 for importation of cattle for industry in general; 1,600,000 for cattle for powdered milk industry and 270,000 for improvement of cattle ranches

¹ A quintal equals 100 pounds.

² The exchange value of the sucre was \$0.0726 U. S. on May 17, 1945.

³ A hectare equals 2.47 acres.

To aid the nation's farmers and stock-raisers in carrying out this ambitious plan, the Ministries of Agriculture, Economy, and the Treasury, the Central Bank, National Development Bank, the Ecuadorean Development Corporation, and other official bodies will lend every possible aid. Technical services and counsel, agricultural equipment, import and export privileges, credit, and similar facilities will be made available to the fullest possible measure. The plan also involves a policy of reforestation through the planting of medicinal trees and shrubs, and, with the object of stimulating the consumption of fruits and vegetables, which will improve national nutrition standards, the Ministry of Agriculture is authorized to require the cultivation of such crops in determined areas. The plan makes clear, however, that along with the establishment of new crops, the Government will seek to improve and protect the cultivation of the export products, such as rice, cacao, and coffee, which are fundamental parts of the nation's economy.

The stockraising plan not only contemplates an increase in beef and milk production; it also embraces an increase in the output of pork and wool.

On the industrial side of the picture, the first step will be a detailed study of national possibilities for industry and mining. Existing enterprises are given assurance of all guarantees necessary to their normal progress and the protection of their invested capital, and methods of attracting new capital will be especially studied and proposed. Among the specific projects to be undertaken immediately—or studied with a view to their not distant initiation—are a rural housing program; the exploitation of phosphate rock deposits for the manufacture of fertilizers; an improved technique in placer gold mining; a cement plant; a cellulose factory as the initial step for the establishment of the pa-

per industry; the production of inedible as well as edible oils, to be established on a producers cooperative basis; and the fishing industry, also to be set up on a cooperative basis and to be financed by the National Development Bank.

The Under Secretary of Industries and Mines is especially charged with seeking the development of certain industries for which sufficient raw materials are available in the country but which are not now utilized to the fullest extent. Among these are: the soap industry, soap imports in 1943 having totaled 48,000 quintals and cost 3 million sucres; the jute and burlap bag industry, imports of these articles in 1943 having reached a value of 1.5 million sucres; and tanned leather, imports of which were valued at 1.4 million sucres in 1943.

The benefits that will accrue to the nation from this plan, once it can be put into effective operation, are self-evident.

Oil explorations in the Paraguayan Chaco

Possibilities of the existence of petroleum deposits in the Chaco Territory of Paraguay have given rise during the past several years to a growing interest in the scientific exploration of the region with a view to placing it under production if oil is actually found. In fact, interest in the possible discovery of petroleum in the region has assumed national and international proportions and the Government has been approached by a number of individuals and organizations who have indicated their willingness to undertake the necessary prospecting and investigation. After a detailed study of all such offers by the Ministry of Public Works and Communications, an agreement was signed on October 4, 1944, between the Government of Paraguay and the Union Oil Company of California, and

Decree-Law No. 5449, approved October 6, 1944, declared the Chaco Territory to be a restricted zone for a 10-year period beginning January 1, 1945, and granted other privileges to facilitate the work of the contracting company.

The agreement follows the more or less usual terms of an oil concession contract. For the purposes of the agreement, the total surface area of the Paraguayan Chaco is fixed at 23 million hectares. (A hectare equals 2.47 acres; the total area of the region is therefore figured as slightly more than 88,800 square miles.) The company will pay the Paraguayan Government an annual surface tax on the whole area of 1 céntimo per hectare during the first year of exploration; 1.1 céntimos the second year; and so on progressively to 1.9 céntimos during the tenth year. However, the surface area of any sections abandoned by the company will be deducted each year from the total on which the tax must be paid. The company will determine one or more specific exploration zones, divided into claims of 10,000 hectares each, which may then be explored for four years, extendable for four more years. For each exploration zone, an additional surface tax of 25 céntimos per hectare must be paid.

The company must begin drilling within 18 months from the effective date of the contract (January 1, 1945) and thereafter must maintain in operation at least one unit capable of drilling to a depth of 1,500 meters (approximately 4,920 feet). If oil is discovered, the contracting company may stake out a claim of a maximum of 2,000 hectares for each well, and is granted the right to work the well for a period of 35 years, which on expiration may be extended for another 15 years. Dating from the time each well is discovered, the company must also pay the Paraguayan Government a sur-

face tax of 1 guaraní¹ per hectare on the area of the claim, and royalties ranging from 12 percent on a daily average production of 5,000 barrels of crude petroleum each month to 15 percent on a daily average production of 10,000 or more barrels each month. After the sixteenth year of exploitation, the Government's royalties will be a flat 15 percent of all crude petroleum extracted. The royalties may be paid in cash on the basis of the average world price during each month of production, or the Government may choose to accept payment in kind, delivered c.i.f. Asunción.

The Government further agrees to permit the duty-free importation of all necessary equipment and, if oil is discovered, the duty-free exportation of the product during the first 35 years of production. The Government also reserves the right to inspect and supervise the work of prospecting, investigation, and exploitation.

If worth while petroleum deposits are discovered in the Chaco Territory, it will be a great boon to the nation's economy. Petroleum is a commodity of such prime necessity in modern life, not only in war but in peace as well, that any country possessing it is rich indeed. If Paraguayan hopes are fulfilled, a new era of development, employment, and prosperity for the nation will certainly unfold.

Colombian land law

Colombia is increasing her agricultural production not only by improving farm methods but also by enlarging the total area under cultivation. The land law of December 31, 1944, published in the *Diario Oficial* for February 6, 1945, prescribes terms and procedures for the renting or tenant farming of agricultural land and authorizes government

¹On May 19, 1945 the exchange value of the guaraní was \$0.3205; the céntimo is 1/100 of the guaraní.

farm loans; in addition to this, it opens up new resources by providing for expropriation of potentially productive lands which are not now being cultivated to good advantage.

These lands are to be allotted, in parcels of from 60 to 250 acres, to farm workers who have no land of their own, and who can prove their ability to make good use of what is assigned them. Graduate agronomists, one of them to be chosen by the present owner of the land in question, will judge whether a given tract is being inefficiently used and is therefore subject to expropriation. The law prescribes procedure for valuation of the areas selected, and for compensation of proprietors. Qualified farmers may buy the land for cash or under one or another form of deferred payment, or they may rent or enter into a partnership or tenancy contract; but in every case the contract must carry a provision making it void in case the new owner or tenant fails to make productive use of the land.

The Ministry of National Economy has charge of selection and distribution. Allotments may not be made from any land now in use for mining, or from any which has surface or subsoil deposits of hydrocarbons. Allotments may include the necessary tools, seed, and shelter, so that work can begin at once. On each piece of land assigned the first 5,000¹ pesos of valuation will be exempt from income, property, and excess profits taxes.

The cheese industry in Cuba

The Cuban cheese industry has shown great progress in recent years, particularly since 1940 when imports of cheese from Europe were interrupted by the war. This inter-

ruption permitted not only the development of the industry itself in Cuba but also a marked increase in sales of Cuban cheese in various markets of the Caribbean area. Furthermore, the good quality of the national product has led to its favorable acceptance at home in place of the imported article, and the industry has lately been able fully to meet domestic consumption requirements.

Cheese imports in Cuba during the years immediately before the war ranged from 256,000 pounds in 1933, with a value of \$38,900, to 578,000 pounds in 1939, valued at \$97,000. In 1943 cheese imports totaled only 48,000 pounds, valued at \$16,800. Exports of Cuban cheese showed a reverse movement in the same years. In 1933 the country exported only 1,000 pounds of cheese valued at \$178; in 1940 the exports reached 293,000 pounds, valued at \$54,150; in 1942 they totaled 959,000 pounds with a value of \$153,200. In 1943, however, there was a sharp drop in cheese exports to 281,000 pounds valued at \$37,500.

The manufacture of cheese in Cuba varies with milk production and with the wet and dry seasons. During the period June to December there is usually sufficient milk because of the rains, and statistics show that 60 percent of the annual output is produced during those months. The industry requires an average of 60,000,000 pounds of milk a year, while the production in rural areas of the type of cheese called *criollo* requires approximately a like quantity, making a total of 120,000,000 pounds of milk a year to meet basic cheese manufacturing needs. Milk transportation and refrigeration problems have created some difficulties for the industry, but the Government has been taking steps to remedy the situation, and at present, if the rainfall follows its normal trend, there is no reason why the cheese industry should not continue to prosper. Total annual production has increased stead-

¹On March 31, 1945, the exchange value of the Colombian peso was \$0.5698.

ily during the past few years. In 1938 the industry produced 1,788,000 pounds; in 1943 total production was 5,216,000 pounds.

The consumption of cheese in Cuba was figured in 1942 as being 2.5 pounds per capita, of which 1.2 pounds was estimated to be commercial cheese and the remaining 1.3 pounds *criollo* cheese, made and consumed in the rural areas. In the past cheese has not generally formed any basic part of the national diet, but more recently, with scarcities and increased costs of other more commonly used foods, there has been a tendency toward a much greater use of cheese throughout the country.

Amnesty for Brazilian political prisoners

On April 18, 1945, President Vargas of Brazil signed Decree-Law No. 7474, conceding full amnesty to all who had been convicted of political crimes since July 16, 1934 to the date of the decree-law. The law provides that public employees, military or civil, may return to their former posts after securing the approval of commissions appointed by the President to pass on each individual case and providing that vacancies exist. They will not, however, have any claim to back pay or indemnity.

Immediately upon the signing of the decree-law, and even before it was published in the *Diário Oficial*, the police authorities released Luiz Carlos Prestes, Brazil's most widely known political prisoner, who had been confined as a Communist since 1936.

Eighteenth season of Mexico's Symphony Orchestra

On May 18, 1945, the eighteenth season of the Symphony Orchestra of Mexico opened with a concert at the Palacio de Bellas Artes, Mexico City, under the direction of Carlos

Chávez. During the 17-week season the orchestra will give 34 regular concerts and five free concerts, three for school children and two for workers.

The season's programs present an interesting picture, for along with its usual repertoire of symphonic music the orchestra will present works of six Mexican composers. Four of these will be given their first performance: *Cuatro Nocturnos de Villarrutia* for chorus and orchestra, by Carlos Chávez; *Sinfonietta*, by Juan Pablo Moncayo; *Nocturno*, by Blas Galindo; and *Sinfonía*, by Carlos Jiménez Mabarak. The presentation of four new Mexican compositions in one season signifies that Mexican musical talent and production are full of vitality. The other two Mexican composers represented on the season's programs are Silvestre Revueltas, whose *Colorines* will be played, and Candelario Huízar, whose composition *Pueblerinas* is listed.

A number of distinguished soloists were booked for appearance with the orchestra during the season, including Claudio Arrau, Chilean pianist, and several prominent Mexican artists. Carlos Chávez, the orchestra's founder and regular conductor, will be assisted by three other Mexican maestros, Juan Pablo Moncayo, Luis Sandi, and Blas Galindo, and by one guest conductor, Alfred Wallenstein.

Elections in Brazil

Brazil has a new long-awaited Electoral Code, approved on May 28, 1945, after many weeks of preparation and study, and on December 2, 1945, a general election will be held, the first since 1930.

The new Code is a long and complicated structure containing almost 700 amendments to the 1935 Code. Its formulation and promulgation followed the approval on February 28, 1945, of Constitutional Law

No. 9, the main new feature of which was to provide for the election by direct popular vote of the President of the Republic and the members of the Federal Council and Chamber of Deputies. With a few necessary exceptions, every literate Brazilian over eighteen and under sixty-five, irrespective of sex, is a voter and must vote.

In the forthcoming general election a President and members of Congress will be chosen. State governors and legislators will be elected on May 6, 1946, and municipal elections will be held at a date still to be fixed.

Brazilian Nutrition Commission

The Brazilian Government has established an eight-member National Nutrition Commission as a dependency of the Federal Foreign Trade Council. The new Commission is charged especially with studying and proposing standards for a national nutrition policy; ascertaining food-consumption habits and the nutritional status of different sections of the population; assisting in and developing research relative to all food and nutritional problems; working to correct defects and deficiencies in the popular diet; and cooperating closely in the development of the food dehydration industry in Brazil.

The creation of this new Commission is in line with a recommendation adopted by the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture in 1943, which urged the establishment of such bodies by all governments represented at the Conference.

Training for rural school teachers in Mexico

On March 19, 1945, Mexico's new Teachers Training Institute (*Instituto de Capacitación del Magisterio*) was inaugurated by

the President of the Republic. Authorized by a law approved December 26, 1944, the Institute is aimed at helping teachers—particularly those in rural schools—to improve their teaching preparation and eventually to qualify for a teacher's certificate or degree.

Since colonial times Mexico, like many other countries in the American Continent, has been confronted with the very grave problem of illiteracy among the great masses of its people, especially the indigenous groups. The education which since the Revolution the Mexican Government has been trying to make available to its citizens requires adequately prepared teachers. But the rural schools more often than not are located in isolated spots, difficult of access and lacking the amenities of modern life. They therefore fail to attract graduate teachers, who can always find teaching positions in the more populated centers, and as a rule the only persons available to teach in such remote places are natives of the district who have not had the desired educational advantages. In spite of the efforts made by the Department of Public Education through such organizations as cultural missions and normal schools to bring teacher preparation to its proper level, the matter has continued to present difficulties. The country does not at present have enough teachers in service, normal school graduates, to fill the approximately 11,000 urban teaching positions and the 18,000 additional posts now held by teachers whose preparation is below standard. To leave the rural schools empty while teachers themselves go to school to secure their degrees and certificates would be equivalent to destroying the rural school system for a period of some years—obviously no solution to the problem.

Confronted with this situation, the Mexican Government decided to adopt the only means possible—the training of teachers by correspondence, supplemented by an annual

six-weeks oral course and final examinations. The law that established the Teachers Training Institute requires all in service who do not hold a degree to register for the correspondence courses. When they satisfactorily complete the required studies, the Secretary of Public Education will issue diplomas accrediting them as teachers of higher primary instruction. The only exception to the registration requirement is for teachers who have been serving continuously for more than ten years and who are more than forty years of age; for these registration in the Institute is voluntary. The study courses which the teachers undertake with the Institute must involve no negligence or interruption in their regular teaching duties.

In a statement to the press in December 1944 commenting on the law that created the Institute, the Secretary of Public Education said that of the approximately 18,000 teachers who do not possess a teacher's degree, some 9,000 have only a primary school certificate; about 3,000 have had one or two years of secondary schooling; approximately 4,000 are graduates of rural schools; and only 2,000 have attended normal schools. The task of equipping all 18,000 of these teachers at once would be neither technically nor economically possible. So for the first year the most needy group, the 9,000 who possess only primary school certificates, has been chosen to start the correspondence courses. As the study plans work out in practice and as the budget allows, the other groups will be admitted to the Institute.

All service which the Institute offers is free. The Government has allocated a total of approximately 1,280,000 pesos for the first year's work, exclusive of investments in equipment, housing, and other incidental expenses.

The benefits and rewards which the nation hopes to reap from this new educational enterprise are of course self-evident. In an

address delivered at the inauguration of the Institute, Jaime Torres Bodet, Secretary of Public Education, remarked: "A new era begins today for thousands of teachers; for those, especially, who because of their humble origin, their slight remuneration, and the remoteness of their service might well have believed themselves outside the interest of the authorities of the Republic. This act (the opening of the Institute) . . . offers unmistakable proof, however, that the distance which separates us materially from their tasks does not separate us from their fate; that we understand the full scope of the responsibilities of their work; and that, in affording them a broader training and consequently an opportunity for better salaries, the Government has glowing faith in them. We know that in their hands lies the future of the rural masses who through education will create for us the Mexico of which we dream: true and free, prosperous and just, strong and sincere."

We see by the papers that—

- A ten-day course in industrial safety was offered during May 1945 in Laredo, Texas, to a group of some twenty Mexican industrialists. Conducted by the University of Texas, the course covered such topics as analysis, cost, investigation, and prevention of labor accidents; industrial inspection; prevention of and protection against fires and explosions; occupational diseases; electricity hazards; safety clothing and equipment for workers; first aid; and safety laws and regulations.
- The Paraguayan Ministry of Agriculture is promoting the growing of wheat, a grain which disappeared from national agriculture after the war of 1865-70. The Department of Itapúa, where about 13,000 acres were planted last year, has proved especially suit-

able for this crop, which is taken by flour mills at current prices according to grade. It is hoped to expand production in other suitable areas, since more than 8,600 long tons of flour and 42,000 tons of wheat were imported in 1943. The figures for 1944 imports were still incomplete at last account, but seemed to be running somewhat below those for the previous year.

- The Argentine Engineering Society is celebrating its fiftieth anniversary this year.

- In the latter part of 1944 the Argentine Corporation for the Promotion of Interchange opened a mining laboratory and experimental plant. The laboratory offers an advisory service to Argentine mining enterprises and will choose well-qualified university students to take post-graduate courses in mining at the University of Chile.

- Since 1905, when Argentine pharmaceutical production amounted to only a sixth of the imports of this nature, the industry has progressed to such an extent that in 1944 the value of its products was more than 160 million pesos, while imports amounted to only 2 million pesos.

- In February 1945 authorization was granted in Uruguay for the establishment of a sewing and embroidering machine factory, the first of its kind in the country. The new enterprise is capitalized at 270,000 pesos and is expected to be ready to begin operations within a year. Its annual production is fixed at 5,000 machines.

- *Flora*, the publication of the Ecuadorean Institute of Natural Sciences, has published a photograph of the oldest eucalyptus tree in Ecuador, standing in a garden at Ambato. At the request of Dr. Gabriel García Moreno, President of Ecuador, two large boxes of eucalyptus seeds were sent in 1865 from the Jardin d'Acclimatation of Paris, but only three germinated: two *eucalyptus gi-*

gantea and one *eucalyptus longifolia*. From one of the former, the tree at Ambato, came seeds for the many trees that have been a godsend to the sierra region, furnishing lumber, firewood, and wood for charcoal.

- An official decree in Cuba, issued in March 1945, authorized the creation of a National Institute of Medical Hydrology and Climatology under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare. The new institute will have its headquarters at the Finlay Institute.

- For better supervision over the safety of railroad passengers, the Ecuadorean Government recently decreed the establishment of a National Railway Safety Department subordinate to the Railway and Transportation Council. Ecuadorean railroads were consolidated into a single national system by a presidential decree of June 15, 1944, in order to ensure improved operational methods and efficiency. At present the country has close to 800 miles of railway and is planning extensive construction of more lines as soon as materials and equipment are available.

- Seventy-five shares of stock in the Plaza de El Toreo, a bull ring of Mexico City, were recently turned over to the Secretary of Health and Public Welfare of Mexico by the young son of the late General Maximino Avila Camacho, who at the time of his death in February 1945 was Secretary of Communications and Public Works of Mexico. The transfer of the stock was made in accordance with the wishes of the late Secretary and his widow. The earnings of the stock will be used by the Department of Health and Public Welfare for social work, particularly child nutrition. The shares, nominally valued at 75,000 pesos, at present are worth approximately 3,000,000 pesos and their earnings are estimated at about 2,000,000 pesos a year.

- *Colombia* has bought for the city of Popayán the house which until his death in 1943 was the town home of Guillermo Valencia. In an adjoining park will be erected a statue of the poet to be executed by the Spanish sculptor Victorio Macho. The house will form a memorial museum, and its value and interest will be enhanced by Valencia's own furnishings, paintings, and personal collections, with a portion of his library, all of which have been presented to the museum by his children.

- The winner of the third annual Miguel Lanz Duret literary prize of 1,000 pesos, sponsored by *El Universal*, Mexico City daily paper, was Jesús Goytortúa Santos, whose novel *Pensativa* was unanimously chosen by the judges as the best received in the 1944 contest. The prizewinner, a native of San Martín Chalchicuátla, State of San Luis Potosí, now living in Mexico City, submitted his novel under the pseudonym "Fidel." The judges described *Pensativa* as having originality of action, a keen dramatic sense, a fresh romanticism, and a well developed story.

- Editorial Poseidon, a *Buenos Aires* publishing company, offers translations of the following American books in its latest catalogue: *George Washington Carver*, by Rackham Holt; *Thoreau*, by Henry Seidel Canby; *All-out on the Road to Smolensk*, by Erskine Caldwell; *Dollar Cotton*, by John Faulkner; *Gideon Planish*, by Sinclair Lewis; *Storm*, by George R. Stewart; *History of Latin America*, by David R. Moore; *March of Democracy*, by James Truslow Adams; *Death Lights a Candle*, by Phoebe Atwood Taylor; and *High Window*, by Raymond Chandler.

- A Colombian linguist, assisted by a gifted young Indian, has been entrusted by Colombia's Ministry of Education with the task of

working out the grammar of one of the Amazon languages, the Sibundoy or Kamtsá. He finds that here not only nouns but even verbs have gender—different forms depending on the sex of the speaker; the verbs also have variations to show whether the speaker makes a statement on his own authority or repeats what someone has told him. To gather material for the grammar, the Colombian and his Indian helper traveled among the tribes with a dictaphone, recording actual conversations for study and comparison. To reduce the sounds to writing, special type castings must be made, so that sounds for which no adequate typographical marks now exist can be indicated in print.

- The President Trujillo Normal School was officially installed in its new building in Ciudad Trujillo, Dominican Republic, on March 25, 1945. The new edifice has two stories and contains 16 class rooms and laboratory, offices, gymnasium, auditorium, library, and cafeteria, while the ample grounds are decorated with gardens and have playing fields for physical culture classes.

- *Chile* is using volunteer workers in the campaign against adult illiteracy. Under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Education a body of civic helpers has been organized to bring instruction to the large numbers of illiterates who are too old to benefit by recent increases in the number of primary schools.

- At the University of Loja, Ecuador, three new schools were recently opened: a School of Music and Speech, which will form the basis of a future conservatory; a School of Industrial Chemistry; and a School of Agronomy. In connection with the latter, the National Development Bank of Ecuador agreed to contribute 500,000 sucres for the establishment of an agricultural experimental farm.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901-2; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely available to officials and private citizens alike. Its

affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments. After November 1, 1945 the members of the Board will be appointed *ad hoc* by the respective governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE HALL OF THE AMERICAS,
PAN AMERICAN UNION





L. S. ROWE

Director General of the Pan American Union since September 1, 1920.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 9



SEPTEMBER 1945

L. S. Rowe Twenty-fifth Anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union

SEPTEMBER 1, 1945 is the twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. L. S. Rowe as Director General of the Pan American Union. In honor of this occasion, the BULLETIN takes pleasure in reprinting Resolution X adopted at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace recently held at Mexico City.

TRIBUTE TO DR. L. S. ROWE

WHEREAS:

Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, has rendered outstanding services to the cause of continental harmony, to which he has nobly devoted his life in the years since, at the side of Elihu

Root, he dedicated himself to its organization, consolidation, and success;

Dr. Rowe and his eminent fellow workers have thus won the gratitude of all the American nations, which are confident that he will continue his incomparable efforts on behalf of the Pan American cause,

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace

RESOLVES:

To place on record its special and heartfelt appreciation of the notable services rendered by Dr. L. S. Rowe and his eminent fellow workers to the furtherance of continental harmony and Pan Americanism.

A Quarter Century of Pan American Progress

Growth of the Inter-American System

WILLIAM MANGER

Counselor of the Pan American Union

THE years 1920 and 1945 are significant dates in the history of international relations. The first marks the inception of the initial attempt to organize on a world scale a system to preserve the peace and promote co-operation among nations. That attempt failed, and the consequence of that failure was a second global war from which the world only now is emerging. The year 1945 signalizes the beginning of a second effort in which, it is hoped, the errors and weaknesses of the first will be avoided.

The quarter century between these two dates has been significant also in the history of the inter-American system; here it is characterized not by failure but by constructive achievement. Pan Americanism, of course, had its inception long before 1920, but the thirty years from 1890 on were what might be termed its formative period, during which from a relatively modest beginning it gradually attained a position of increasing stability and influence. But the twenty-five years since the formal close of World War I have been years of positive accomplishment, marked by a strengthening of the basic principles on which the system rests and of the instrumentalities through which it functions.

The Pan American Union celebrates on September 1 the twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. L. S. Rowe as Director General. During these years the American republics have together made great progress, spiritually and materially. In honor of the Director General, the BULLETIN will publish a series of papers on inter-American relations, 1920-1945, of which this is the first.

The Pan American movement originated in an International Conference of American States, and these conferences continue to be its principal policy-forming medium. A more recent development in the conference field is the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs which, although more restricted in scope and convened primarily to consider problems of an emergency character, have exerted an influence no less important than that of the International Conferences themselves. The growth of the inter-American system is perhaps most strikingly revealed by the increase in the number of technical conferences. More than 200 such meetings have been held since 1890, and of this number approximately 150 have been celebrated during the last twenty-five years.

A corresponding growth has been experienced by the permanent and *ad hoc* offices and committees functioning within the inter-American system. The old-established agencies have been enlarged, new ones have been created, until today there are few fields of endeavor that are not the subject of consideration by a Pan American body.

Growth of the Pan American Union

The Pan American Union of 1945 bears little resemblance to the Commercial Bureau of the American Republics that was organized at the First International Conference

of American States in 1890, or to the institution as it functioned immediately prior to 1920. Originally, as its name implied, it operated exclusively in the field of economics, and by the terms of the 1890 resolution it was to serve only as an agency "for the collection, tabulation, and publication . . . of information as to the production and commerce, and as to the customs laws and regulations of the respective countries."

Succeeding conferences gradually broadened its scope, and it soon became the permanent secretariat of the International Conferences. As such it prepared the programs, preserved the archives, and undertook to carry out the conclusions of the meetings. But for the first three decades its activities were directed primarily to the promotion of trade, the compilation of commercial statistics, and the dissemination of general information on the member countries. Administratively it was organized to give effect to these objectives.

It is only since 1920 that technical divisions have been set up to function in the fields of intellectual cooperation, music, agriculture, labor and social information, travel, and the codification of international law. In 1917 the Governing Board recommended the establishment of an office of education and a start in that direction was made under the supervision of the Assistant Director; but it was not until 1924 that a separate section was organized. Since 1929 this has been known as the Division of Intellectual Cooperation. A Division of Agricultural Cooperation was established in 1928 in response to a resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States. In the last ten years four additional offices have been set up: Travel in 1935, Juridical Affairs in 1937, Labor and Social Information in 1940, and Music in 1942.

As a result of these measures the work of the Pan American Union now covers the

whole field of economic, juridical, cultural, and social endeavor. In no instance, however, are the activities as broad or as intensive as might be desired; no one is more aware of this than the personnel of the divisions themselves. But each has established close cooperative relations with official and unofficial agencies in all the American Republics as well as with individuals having related interests, and within the restrictions imposed by budgetary limitations a genuine endeavor is made to serve the governments and peoples of the member states.

Organization of the Governing Board

It has been said that the value of an organization can be measured by the heat of the argument it generates. In the past quarter of a century the Pan American Union has been the subject of warm, but always constructive, debate, whenever it has come up for consideration at Pan American conferences. This is especially true of the discussions on the organization of the Governing Board.

The resolution on the reorganization, consolidation and strengthening of the inter-American system, adopted at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace held at Mexico City early this year, places the control of the Pan American Union in the hands of a Governing Board "composed of one *ad hoc* delegate designated by each of the American Republics, which delegates shall have the rank of Ambassadors and shall enjoy the corresponding privileges and immunities, but shall not be a part of the diplomatic mission accredited to the government of the country in which the Pan American Union has its seat." It further stipulates that the Chairman of the Board shall be elected annually and shall not be eligible for re-election for the term immediately following.

This is a far step from the provisions of

the 1890 resolution, which placed the Commercial Bureau of the American Republics under the supervision of the United States and made it directly responsible to that government. This unilateral method of control was modified within a few years, first by the appointment of an Executive Committee of five members, each from a different country, and subsequently by the creation of a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the diplomatic representatives of the other governments accredited to Washington. Although the supervision of the organization was thus placed on an international basis, representation on the Board was still conditioned on recognition of the respective governments by the government of the United States.

The modification adopted at Mexico City is the culmination of a movement that had its inception as far back as the Fifth International Conference of American States in 1923. It was at that time that the suggestion was first made that members of the Governing Board should be accredited to the Pan American Union. The proposal was repeated at the Sixth Conference of 1928, at which it was agreed that the Governing Board should be composed of the representatives the Governments might appoint, but that the appointments might be given to the diplomatic representatives in Washington. This is what actually occurred, with the result that the composition of the Board remained the same. It was with a view to making special representation mandatory that the provision in the Mexico City resolution was adopted.

There is a twofold reason for this most recent change in the composition of the Governing Board. One is that the additional duties which are expected to devolve upon the Board will make it too burdensome for the accredited diplomatic representative at Washington to fill both offices. The

other is that a special representative will be in a position to exercise greater freedom than a diplomat in the consideration of questions that may come before the Board.

The evolution of the Governing Board affords an interesting study in international organization. Nor is it to be assumed that this evolutionary process has run its course. The extent of the authority to be exercised by the Board has been debated many times, and no doubt it will come up again. The change in organization made at Mexico City was not acceptable to all the delegates, partly, it was contended, because it restricts the freedom of the governments in selecting their representatives, and partly because of the additional financial burden involved. It may be anticipated, therefore, that the Governing Board, its organization, and its powers will be the subject of further interesting discussion at future conferences.

Growth of other agencies

The Pan American Union is the principal but by no means the sole organ of the inter-American system, which operates through many instrumentalities, including conferences and a number of permanent agencies. Most of the latter have been created during the period under review, and those that were in existence prior thereto have experienced a corresponding growth in activities.

It is not possible to enter into a discussion of all of these organizations, but the list given below reveals the ramifications of the inter-American system and the variety of subjects with which it deals. The oldest of the specialized offices is the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, which traces its origin to the Second International Conference of American States in 1902. With the exception of this, and of the Inter-American Trade Mark Bureau of Habana and the Pan American Railway Committee, which is a continuation of the Intercontinental Railway

Commission, every one of the agencies on this list has been established during the past quarter of a century. Grouped in accordance with the field in which they operate, they are as follows:

ECONOMIC RELATIONS:

- Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission (New York)
- Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences (Turrialba, Costa Rica)
- Inter-American Statistical Institute (Washington)
- Inter-American Trade Mark Bureau (Habana)

INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION:

- Inter-American University (Panama)
- Pan American Institute of Geography and History (Mexico)

INTERNATIONAL LAW:

- Committee of Experts on the Codification of International Law
- Inter-American Juridical Committee (Rio de Janeiro)
- Permanent Committee on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation (Habana)
- Permanent Committee on Private International Law (Montevideo)
- Permanent Committee on Public International Law (Rio de Janeiro)
- Permanent Committee on the Unification of Commercial and Civil Laws (Lima)

PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE:

- American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood (Montevideo)
- Inter-American Indian Institute (Mexico)
- Pan American Sanitary Bureau (Washington)
- Permanent Inter-American Committee on Social Security

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS:

- Inter-American Radio Office (Habana)
- International Office of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain (Montevideo)
- International Postal Transfer Office (Panama)
- Pan American Highway Confederation (Washington)
- Pan American Railway Committee
- Permanent American Aeronautical Commission
- Permanent Association of Pan American Highway Congresses (Buenos Aires)

Mention should also be made of the Inter-American Commission of Women, created by the Sixth International Conference of American States.

In addition to the foregoing there are the various tribunals, commissions, and committees provided for in the several treaties and conventions for the pacific settlement of international disputes. Some of these are permanent; others are *ad hoc*, created only when a situation develops that requires their services.

The ability of the inter-American system to respond to the urgencies of the moment was never more clearly demonstrated than in the measures taken as a consequence of World War II. In November 1939, immediately following the outbreak of the war in Europe, the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee was organized to consider the effects of the war on the economies of the American Republics. Outgrowths of this body are the Inter-American Development Commission and the Inter-American Coffee Board.

In 1942, following the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs was held at Rio de Janeiro. There the governments agreed to sever all diplomatic and economic relations with the aggressor states and adopted measures for the military and political defense of the Continent. The Inter-American Defense Board was organized, to sit at Washington, and the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense was set up at Montevideo to formulate measures to prevent subversive movements and other activities against the political security of the American Republics. Earlier, in 1940, the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration had been organized to take over the administration of European colonies and possessions in America when it appeared that these might fall into Axis hands.

Continental peace and security

The machinery for the pacific settlement of inter-American disputes is almost wholly a development of the last twenty-five years. The subject of arbitration had been discussed at the First and Second International Conferences of American States and treaties drawn up which, although signed by a number of delegations, never came into general operation. Prior to 1920 no continental peace agreement had been reached except on the relatively restricted subject of pecuniary claims.

The first stone in the inter-American peace structure was laid in 1923 when the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts was signed at the Fifth International Conference of American States. This original agreement was followed by the conciliation and arbitration treaties of 1929, the Non-Aggression and Conciliation Treaty of 1933, the treaties on Good Offices and Mediation and the Prevention of Controversies of 1936, all of which were supplemented by the procedure of consultation, operating through the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, evolved at conferences held at Buenos Aires in 1936 and Lima in 1938.

Pacific settlement in the inter-American system is not merely a theory but a fact. In the last quarter of a century a number of serious international differences have been solved by peaceful means, among them the following: The Tacna-Arica dispute, a long-standing controversy between Chile and Peru which had disturbed the relations of the two countries and of the entire Continent for many years and which was settled in 1929 by direct negotiation between the two parties and through the good offices of the United States; the Guatemala-Honduras boundary dispute, ended in 1930 by the award of an arbitral tribunal; the Leticia controversy of 1932 between Colombia and Peru, solved by a commission meeting at

Rio de Janeiro under the auspices of the League of Nations; the Chaco dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay which, although unfortunately leading to war, was finally terminated in 1935 by the untiring efforts of the neutral states of the Continent; the Haitian-Dominican frontier controversy of 1937, settled through the application of the procedure of conciliation provided for in the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts and the Conciliation Convention of 1929; and, most recently, the settlement of the Ecuador-Peru boundary dispute by the terms of the protocol signed at Rio de Janeiro on January 29, 1942, at the time of the Third Meeting of Foreign Ministers, through the good offices of the states represented at that conference.

Closely related to the peaceful settlement of disputes are certain fundamental precepts that have been accepted by the American Republics to determine their legal relations. These have been recorded in international treaties and declarations and are a part of the basic law of the Continent. They include the principles that all states are juridically equal, that respect for treaties is an indispensable rule for the development of relations between states, that no state has the right to intervene in the internal or external affairs of another, that war or the use of force as an instrument of national policy is condemned and proscribed, and that no territorial acquisitions by force shall be recognized.

The most recent step in developing the machinery for the preservation of peace and assuring the security of the Western Hemisphere was taken at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace (Mexico City, February 21-March 8, 1945). The Act of Chapultepec, signed at that time, is a guarantee of the territorial integrity and the political independence and sovereignty of each State by all the other signatory States.

It stipulates that an aggression against one shall be considered an attack upon all, whether it be committed by an American or a non-American state. The Act of Chapultepec itself is only a provisional instrument for the duration of the war, and is to be replaced by a permanent treaty to be drawn up at Rio de Janeiro in October.

The pledge of mutual assistance in the event of aggression by a non-American state is not new; it had been previously expressed in other documents, specifically in the 1940 Habana declaration on reciprocal assistance and cooperation for defense. It is, therefore, merely the reiteration and elaboration of an established principle, but a principle that cannot be reaffirmed too often or expressed in too formal a manner. A united front by the nations of the Western Hemisphere when confronted by a threat of attack is one of the strongest assurances that the peace and security of the American Continent will be preserved.

The application of this principle to the relations of the American Republics with one another is definitely an innovation. Heretofore the position has been taken that in the inter-American system force or the imposition of sanctions was unnecessary. As an alternative an endeavor has been made to develop a sense of continental responsibility for the maintenance of peace and, through the application of the procedure of consultation, to seek a solution whenever any situation threatens the peace of the Continent.

The reference in the preamble of the Act of Chapultepec to "an act of aggression of an American State against one or more American States" may be interpreted as casting a doubt on that unity and solidarity which have always been considered a major premise of the Pan American movement. In that respect it might be thought to be an element of weakness rather than of strength, and to constitute a step backward rather

than forward in the evolution of the inter-American system.

The Act of Chapultepec originated in extraordinary circumstances. One prefers to feel that this particular feature is a reflection of the disturbed conditions of the times rather than a response to any real need. At the forthcoming conference to convert this temporary agreement into a permanent treaty an opportunity will be afforded to discuss whether it should be retained in the definitive treaty. Whether it is retained or excluded it is certainly to be hoped there will never be an occasion to invoke its provisions against a member of the American community of nations.

Postwar Pan America

Even as the termination of the first World War marked the end of one and the beginning of a new epoch in the growth of the Pan American movement, so does the conclusion of the European part of World War II signalize the start of a new period in its historical evolution. The outlines of this future development have already been drawn. It remains only to implement the proposals and put the machinery into actual operation.

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace provided for a general overhauling of the mechanism of the Pan American organization. Reference has already been made to the changes in the organization of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. In addition, the resolution adopted at Mexico City stipulates that the International Conferences of American States shall meet at four- rather than at five-year intervals, and that in the intervals annual Meetings of Foreign Ministers shall be held. An Inter-American Economic and Social Council is created; new agencies may be set up and existing bodies eliminated or adapted to the future needs of the organi-

zation. The Governing Board is given supervisory authority over all agencies that are or may become related to the Pan American Union, and finally, the Governing Board is entrusted with the exercise of political powers.

The question of the grant of political authority to the Pan American Union has had an interesting history. At one time it was one of the salient issues confronting Pan American conferences. At the Habana Conference of 1928 the question was answered in the negative, with the specific declaration that "neither the Governing Board nor the Pan American Union shall exercise functions of a political character."

But time brings changes. At succeeding conferences topics of a political nature figured more and more prominently in the agendas, and the need of an agency to deal with such problems in the intervals between conferences became obvious. The term itself, of course, is difficult to define, and from time to time the Governing Board acted on measures which, while not strictly political, certainly had political implications.

This anomalous situation has now been clarified. The resolution of the Mexico City Conference specifically entrusts to the Governing Board "action . . . on every matter that affects the effective functioning of the inter-American system and the solidarity and general welfare of the American Republics." The grant of political power is not specific, but that is the intent of the clause and that is the manner in which it has been construed.

With the exception of the reorganization of the Governing Board, which becomes effective in November, and the establishment of the Economic and Social Council, the foregoing plan is not self-executing. It must await implementation by the Ninth

International Conference of American States, which is scheduled for Bogotá in 1946. To that end the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has been entrusted with the preparation of a draft charter for the improvement and strengthening of the inter-American system. This will incorporate the basic features of the Mexico City resolution.

The resolution opens up new horizons for the Pan American movement. It recognizes that the intensification of the international relations of the American Republics, among themselves and with states in other parts of the world, requires a broadening of the base and a strengthening of the whole structure of the inter-American system. It contemplates that there should be greater integration and closer coordination among the various elements of the inter-American system, and that this enlarged activity should be undertaken under the general supervision of the Governing Board. The signing at the Ninth International Conference of the American States of a charter prepared in accordance with the principles set forth in the resolution of Mexico City will be of vital importance to the Pan American Union and to the future growth of the inter-American system.

As international relations are today organized, their success or failure depends more on the spirit in which they are approached than on the form in which they are expressed. By tradition, by conviction, and by action the nations of the Western Hemisphere are pledged to cooperation, reciprocal assistance, and a respect for the rights of others—essential requisites to the success of any form of international organization. These are the bases on which the inter-American system has grown in the past; these are the principles by which it will progress in the future.

Peru's New President

José Luis Bustamante y Rivero

PERU's lively presidential campaign, terminating in the national elections on June 10, 1945, resulted in an overwhelming victory at the polls for Dr. José Luis Bustamante y Rivero, candidate of the Frente Democrático Nacional, who is a distinguished lawyer, diplomat, professor, and man of letters.

Dr. Bustamante's candidacy was supported generally by the liberal elements in the country, although the Frente Democrático Nacional is a coalition including rightist as well as leftist groups. Notable among the rightists were ex-President Marshal Benavides and his followers. The leftists included the Apristas of Haya de la Torre, now known as the Partido del Pueblo, and the Communists. The noted poet Dr. José Gálvez, who heads the Frente Democrático Nacional, was elected Vice-President.

Dr. Bustamante was born in Arequipa on January 15, 1894. As his father was Prosecuting Attorney of the Superior Court of Arequipa, it was not surprising that Don José Luis should make law his career. He began his college studies at the University of San Agustín in Arequipa, graduating as a Bachelor of Philosophy, History, and Letters in 1913, and receiving his degree of Attorney and Doctor of Jurisprudence in 1918. Six months after finishing law school he obtained the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, History, and Letters at the University of San Antonio Abad in Cuzco. His record at both institutions was brilliant.

The first public office he held was that of Comptroller of the Municipality of Arequipa, in which capacity he served from 1922 to 1924. During part of this time he was also Acting Professor of Peruvian



Archaeology, Social Geography of Peru, and Modern Philosophy in the University of Arequipa. And continuing his studies at the University of San Agustín, he received in 1928 the degree of Doctor of Political Science and Economics.

After being named Rapporteur and Acting Judge of the Court of First Instance, he served from 1928 to 1930 as Acting Prosecuting Attorney for the Superior Court of Arequipa. During 1928 he was also Acting Professor of Civil Procedural Law in the University of Arequipa.

Dr. Bustamante took part in the revolution of 1930 under General Sánchez Cerro and was named Minister of Justice, Reli-

gion, and Education in the Sánchez Cerro government. He resigned soon afterwards, however, because of a difference of opinion over policy, and from 1931 to 1934 occupied the Chair of Civil Law at the University of Arequipa.

It was in 1934 that Dr. Bustamante began his career as a diplomat. In that year he was appointed Minister to Bolivia. He remained in La Paz until November 1938, returning to Lima to be one of Peru's delegates at the Eighth International Conference of American States held there in December. From 1939 to 1942 he was Minister to Uruguay. He was sent to Asunción in August 1939 as Ambassador Extraordinary on Special Mission to attend the inauguration of General Estigarribia as President of Paraguay. In 1942 Dr. Bustamante returned to Bolivia as Ambassador, leaving this post in March 1945 to become a candidate for the presidency.

Besides his action in the international field recorded above, Dr. Bustamante was in 1939 and 1940 Chairman of the Peruvian Delegation to the Second Congress of the South American Bar Association at Montevideo, where he was chairman of the Committee on Civil Law; was Peruvian observer at the Regional Conference of the River

Plate Countries in Montevideo in 1941; and represented the Bar Association of Lima in the Second Conference of the Inter-American Bar Association at Rio de Janeiro in August 1943.

Una visión del Perú, a lecture which he delivered in Montevideo in 1940, has won fame in the fields of both literature and political philosophy. His other published works are: *Organización y procedimientos de la justicia militar en el Perú* (thesis for the doctorate in law), 1918; *Proyecto de ley de juzgados de paz* (awarded a prize by the Bar Association of Arequipa), 1920; *La crisis universitaria* (thesis for the doctorate in letters), 1918; *El laudo arbitral peruano-chileno* (thesis for the doctorate in political science and economics), 1928; *Estudio biográfico sobre don Francisco García Calderón*, written for the celebration of the centenary of García Calderón's birth by the University of Arequipa, 1934; *La evolución del contrato civil* (monograph), 1934; *Evocación, carácter y elogio de Arequipa* (lecture), Montevideo, 1941; *El Tratado de Derecho Civil Internacional de Montevideo de 1940*, Buenos Aires, 1942.

Dr. Bustamante took office as President of Peru on July 28. His term of office is six years.



The Training of Child Welfare Specialists from the Other American Republics

KATHARINE F. LENROOT

Chief, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

THE Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor has been sharing since 1941 in the cooperative program for the development of social, economic, cultural, and scientific relations with the other American republics under the auspices of the Interdepartmental Committee on Cultural and Scientific Cooperation, led by the Department of State.

Since the day in 1941 when a pediatrician and a social worker boarded a plane for Rio de Janeiro in response to an official invitation from the Government of Brazil, to give consultation service to the National Children's Bureau of that country, the program has developed and, through one type of project or another, has reached into every one of our sister republics in this hemisphere.

The Interdepartmental Committee was established at the suggestion of the President early in 1938, to coordinate the activities of the various Federal departments and agencies, especially in carrying out some of the reciprocal undertakings recommended by recent International Conferences of American States. Congress, in 1938 and 1939, passed special acts implementing the operations of the Committee which, until its change of name, was known as the Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics.

The Congressional appropriations, based upon projects submitted by the Federal agencies concerned, are made to the Department of State and are allocated by the Interdepartmental Committee to the member agencies.

Inter-American cooperation in promoting the health and welfare of mothers and children represents a most appealing phase of the general program since every republic in this hemisphere is vitally concerned with the development of services which will improve the conditions of life of the future generation. This concern has manifested itself in various ways: the creation of governmental agencies, the enactment of Children's Codes, the training of specialists in the fields of maternal and child health and social service, and in many other ways. The cooperation which the Children's Bureau has been asked to give has been especially related to the establishment or strengthening of special services through the assignment of consultants to governmental agencies in the various American countries, to advisory service in connection with the revision of legislation affecting children and young people, and to the training of specialized personnel, either through the assignment of specialists to schools of nursing or social service, or through programs of in-service training for specialists for the other American republics who are brought to the United States for a definite period of study and observation in public and private agencies in this country.

The last-mentioned program was initiated on a modest scale in the year 1942 when a distinguished group of five specialists came to the United States for brief periods of study and observation, which included attendance at the Eighth Pan American Child Congress. Countries represented by this



CHILD WELFARE SPECIALISTS AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Standing, left to right: Sr. Mario Barrantes Sáenz, Costa Rica; Dr. Alvaro Pontes Bahia, Brazil; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Dr. Ángel Messina Pimentel, Dominican Republic; Dr. Baltasar Caravedo, Peru. Seated, left to right: Mrs. Elizabeth Shirley Enochs, Director of the Inter-American Cooperation Unit; Srta. Leopoldina González, Paraguay; Miss Lenroot; Srta. Alicia Fornos Ramos, Nicaragua; Miss Rose Alvernaz of the Children's Bureau Staff of the Inter-American Cooperation Unit.

first group were: Bolivia, El Salvador, Haiti, Peru, and Uruguay. With the exception of the representative from Haiti, Mlle. Jeanne Sylvain, who has become that country's first trained social worker, this group was composed of the following well-known pediatricians: Dr. F. Torres Bracamonte of Bolivia, Dr. Ranulfo Castro of the National Child Welfare Association of El Salvador, Dr. Manuel Salcedo F., Director of the National Child Welfare Institute of Peru, and Dr. Victor Escardó y Anaya, Director of the

Children's Division of the Child Welfare Council of Uruguay.

The longest period of study and observation for any of the pediatricians was only three months. Through the cooperation of the Department of State which provided a travel grant and the interest of the National Catholic School of Social Service in Washington, which granted free tuition, it was possible for Mlle. Sylvain to remain for a longer period. When the School of Social Service Administration of the University of

Chicago granted free tuition for study during a summer quarter it was possible for Mlle. Sylvain to remain in the United States for a year.

The presence of these specialists from five different countries awakened great interest among the individuals and agencies in the United States in the work being developed along similar lines in the other republics, and, in turn, the visitors expressed deep interest in certain phases of work for mothers and children which they felt might be adapted to their own needs and conditions.

So gratifying were the results of this first experiment, and so great was the interest manifested in the other countries in a repe-

tition of the program, that the Children's Bureau decided to offer nine fellowships for intern-training in maternal and child welfare in the fiscal year 1945. Utilizing the experience gained in 1942, the Bureau was able to develop a more extensive program covering a longer period of training.

A prospectus outlining the type of training offered under two major options, one in the field of health, and the other in the field of social services for children, was prepared for distribution through official channels. On the basis of applications received, fellowships were awarded to the following distinguished group of men and women:

<i>Country</i>	<i>Name of Intern</i>	<i>Field of Study</i>
Brazil	Dr. ALVARO PONTES BAHIA, Inspector of Prenatal and Child Health, Department of Health, Bahia, Brazil	Maternal and child health
Colombia	Dr. ERNESTO ARANGO ESCOBAR, Chief of the Municipal Clinic for Protection of Mothers and Children, Medellín	Maternal and child health
Costa Rica	Sr. MARIO BARRANTES SÁENZ, Legal representative and director-officer of National Child Welfare Association, San José	Child welfare
Dominican Republic	Dr. ÁNGEL MESSINA PIMENTEL, Director, Division of Maternity and Infancy, Ciudad Trujillo	Maternal and child health
Ecuador	Dr. CARLOS HUMBERTO PÁEZ TORRES, Secretary, Division of Child Welfare, Ministry of Social Welfare, Quito	Child welfare
Nicaragua	Srta. ALICIA FORNOS RAMOS, Director of Visiting Nurses, Department of Public Health, Managua	Maternal and child health
Paraguay	Srta. LEOPOLDINA GONZÁLEZ, Nurse-midwife, Escuela Polivalente de Visitadoras de Higiene, Asunción	Maternal and child health
Peru	Dr. BALTAZAR CARAVEDO, Chief, Division of Mental Hygiene for Children, Lima	Mental Hygiene
Venezuela	Dr. OSCAR MAYZ VALLENILLA, Pediatrician, Health Unit, Maracaibo	Maternal and child health

Early in January the interns began to arrive. They reached Washington at intervals during that month and the next as travel conditions permitted. At the last moment the specialist from Venezuela was

unable to come, so that the group finally received was composed of eight persons for whom a varied program had been planned.

Those who arrived within a few days of each other were able to work as a group

during the preliminary period of observation in the Children's Bureau. They visited the various divisions and units, conferred with specialists in their own particular fields, and reviewed, in conference with State consultants, some of the programs of maternal and child health and child welfare carried on in the States, especially in those States to which they expected to be assigned for more intensive training.

Visits to other bureaus and divisions of the Department of Labor, to other agencies of the Federal Government, to the Pan American Union, and to some of the national monuments and centers of cultural or scientific interest in the nation's capital marked this preliminary period during which the Children's Bureau took on the aspect of a miniature Pan American Union in which inter-American fellowship and good will were the order of the day. Representatives of countries as far apart as Paraguay and Costa Rica, Peru and the Dominican Republic, Brazil and Nicaragua learned to know more about each other as well as about the United States. Moreover, the staffs of the Children's Bureau and other agencies were given new insight into the conditions and problems surrounding the lives of mothers and children in the other republics and into the work of the agencies set up by the Governments of those countries to administer official programs for maternal and child health and welfare.

After this preliminary period of orientation, the interns scattered far and wide, each to remain for four months or more in one locality, and then to visit selected agencies in other areas before returning to the Children's Bureau to write a report of experiences and observations, review and discuss impressions and conclusions with members of the Bureau's professional staff, and prepare for return to their respective countries.

Dr. Bahia, for instance, was the first of all

to St. Louis, where the Children's Hospital, the Children's Aid Society, the Catholic Charities, and many other public and private health and welfare agencies cooperated in the arrangement of an extensive program of study and observation which included experience in rural areas as well as in the city. Dr. Arango and Dr. Messina, being interested especially in maternity care, spent considerable periods of time in Gallinger Hospital, Washington, D. C., and at Johns Hopkins. Both observed rural services under the guidance of Dr. William J. French, whose program of maternal and child health services in Anne Arundel County, Maryland, has been of interest to many visitors from the other Americas.

Sr. Barrantes spent his longest period of study and observation in Rochester, New York. There Mr. Oscar W. Kuolt, General Secretary of the Council of Social Agencies, arranged an extensive program which included study of children's agencies, family agencies, health agencies, group-work and school social service agencies, community planning and financing, and observation of a Community Chest campaign. Visits to Buffalo, Niagara Falls, Watertown, and Utica provided further opportunities for study and observation. Dr. Arango also went to Rochester where study of the Health Department gave him many bases of comparison with his own program in the city of Medellín.

All the trainees, with the exception of the one from Paraguay, who was placed for intensive training in Providence Hospital, Washington, D. C., spent some time in Chicago where the numerous agencies devoted to health and welfare were of outstanding interest. In Denver, Colorado, in a mountain setting that reminded him of his native Ecuador, Dr. Páez attended classes offered by the School of Social Service, visits to the juvenile court and other children's

agencies, and study of the Department of Public Welfare and especially of group-work services for children proved of great interest. Before coming to the United States, Dr. Páez had been commissioned by Government decree to make a special study of juvenile courts and services for delinquent children and to report thereon to his Government. Consequently visits to juvenile courts and various agencies dealing with dependent and delinquent children were an important feature of his visits to Chicago, Milwaukee, Muskegon (Michigan), and New York.

Srta. Fornos had her longest period of training under the auspices of the Washenaw County Health Department in Michigan, where her program included general observation in all phases of the work of the Health Department, including weekly attendance at staff meetings and child health conferences, field visiting with members of the Health Department staff, and attendance at classes at the School of Public Health. Because of the presence in Michigan of many Mexican families, Srta. Fornos was able to do some of her visiting among these families who appreciated her ability to help them and interpret their needs.

Since Dr. Caravedo was particularly interested in the field of mental hygiene, he spent the greater portion of his time in Boston under the auspices of the Judge Baker Guidance Center for Childhood and Youth, but he also made visits to many other agencies, such as child guidance clinics, and agencies concerned with mental health. He had an opportunity to observe the work of a number of specialized institutions for delinquent children, not only in Boston, but in other cities and towns of Massachusetts as well as in New Haven, New York, New Jersey, Baltimore, and Washington, D. C.

Although these interns came to learn, it

was obvious, long before they left for their home lands, that many individuals and groups in this country were eager to learn from them. They were therefore in demand as speakers and were frequently asked to give interviews to the press of the various localities in which they were being trained, and, in general, to interpret their countries and their interests to the people of the United States with whom they were associated in the course of their stay.

It was the consensus of those who dealt with this group that they were excellent ambassadors of good will whose serious interest in their respective fields won the respect of the professional persons whom they met, some of whom already appear to be interested in visiting the native lands of these guests as soon as peace and normal travel conditions return.

On the other hand, the visitors from the countries to the south of us were unanimous in expressing the hope that they may some day return to our country in order to see more than wartime conditions permitted this year. This should not be interpreted to mean that the limitations of staff, equipment, and services which war conditions have imposed on many agencies were considered to have interfered with this year's program of observation and study. One of the interns expressed the views of many in stating that the effort to maintain standards and give service despite war conditions had provided one of the most valuable lessons for them all. "If we had come in times of peace," he said, "we should have gone home thinking that the good work done here was due to the excellent resources and facilities available. But under war conditions we have seen that careful planning and determined effort can overcome many obstacles and that reasonable standards can be maintained and good service given in spite of them. This has been a most valuable lesson for us all."

It must be obvious from this brief summary that the success of this year's program is due, in great measure, to the cooperation of the many agencies, both public and private, in the national capital and in the States, which played such an important part in making available opportunities for study and observation for these trainees. Overworked and over-burdened as all agency officials are in these difficult times, they nevertheless shouldered the additional task of interpret-

ing to guests from many different countries all that goes into the organization and administration of health and welfare services for mothers and children in the United States. In so doing they have not only earned the deep gratitude of an outstanding group of citizens of the other American republics, and of the Children's Bureau, whose guests they were, but they have made a significant and lasting contribution to the cause of inter-American friendship and understanding.

Pan American Day, 1945

CLARA CUTLER CHAPIN

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

PAN AMERICAN DAY of 1945 took place in the shadow of great events. Great days in the life of the Americas were those of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, which had just been meeting in Mexico City. Great days for American nations, as for all nations of the world, were those of the United Nations Conference on International Organization, which was to begin its San Francisco sessions less than two weeks after this historic April 14. And over the very Day of the Americas itself fell the sudden somber gloom of death. On April 14, on the afternoon for which gay fiestas had been planned from the Great Lakes to the southern Andes, a flag-covered casket moved slowly and solemnly down Washington's Constitution Avenue while the whole western world stood at mourning.

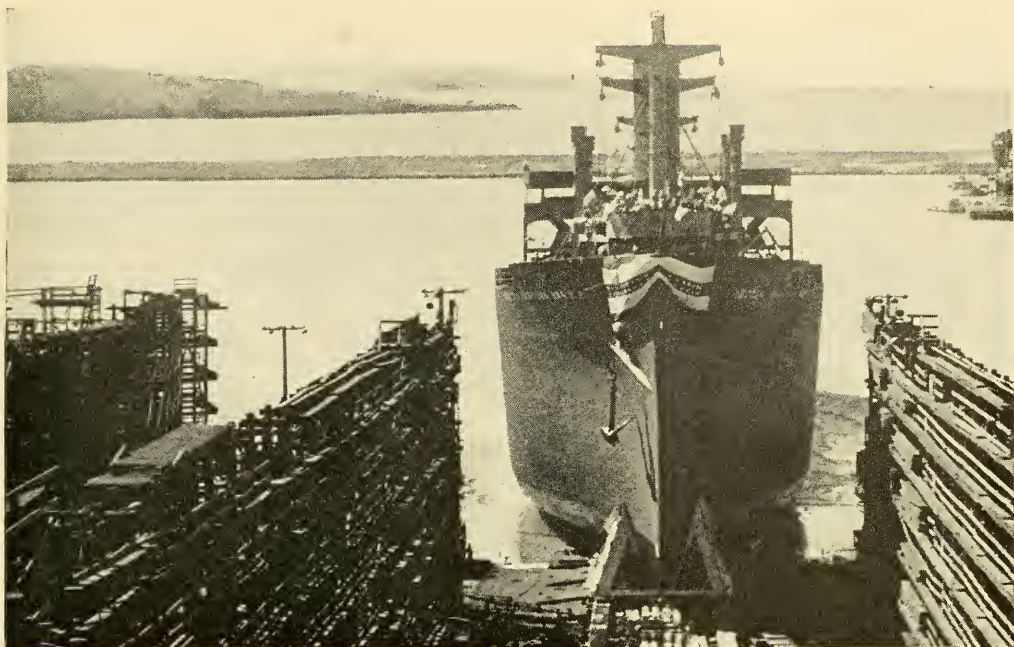
At the Pan American Union this fifty-fifth anniversary of its founding was not greeted by the festive array of flags and the brilliant evening ceremony so long prepared. A solitary flag floated at half-mast; and a

special noonday session of the Governing Board paid final tribute to Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

There was more than sorrow at this meeting. Under President Roosevelt the gradual development of inter-American relations had quickened to the rapid tempo demanded by a time of stress. Pan American solidarity had become associated in many minds with the personality of the President himself. Now he was gone, and what would happen?

The answer came in the words of the new President, which were read by Secretary Stettinius, chairman of the Governing Board, as soon as the Board had passed its resolutions of mourning. To the assembled representatives of the American Republics President Truman had sent this message:

Now the great man who was the author of the Good Neighbor policy has passed away. But the policy and the program to which he gave so much live on. They are now part of America. We shall continue to walk together as neighbors on that road to security and peace which the vision and steadfast purpose of Franklin Delano



Courtesy of Pan American Society, San Francisco

THE "PAN AMERICAN VICTORY"

At the yards of the Permanente Metals Corporation, Richmond, California, the "Pan American Victory" was launched on April 14, 1945.

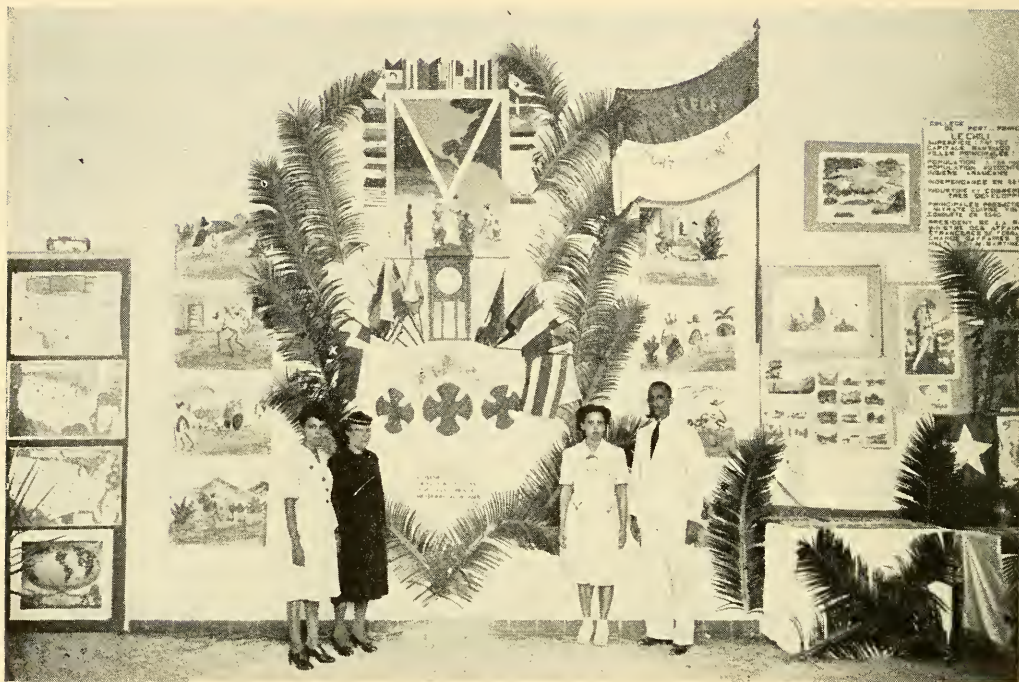
Roosevelt helped us so much to find and to follow.

Two dates had strangely come together—the day for which months of planning had prepared messages of mutual help and trust, and the day, scarcely conceivable a few hours before, when the world paid silent respect to the man who had labored for that mutual help and trust from the moment he took office as president. What playwright would offer us so bold a stroke of chance? *El Plata* of Montevideo spoke words that were in many minds on that morning of April 14: "Fate has willed that . . . the celebration of the great day shall have the silent and somber solemnity of flags at half-mast. . . . This Pan American Day, then, is a day of meditation. . . . All peoples of the Americas may well ponder the noble lesson here set forth, the lesson of a policy of brotherhood."

All peoples of the Americas did indeed

ponder the lesson, if we may judge by the letters that have come to the Pan American Union describing the events of the day. They come from Yucatan, from Port-au-Prince, from San Salvador, from Seattle, Chicago, Brooklyn, and Memphis, from Lima, La Paz, Santa Marta, Chihuahua, and Puerto Montt, from Greensboro, Winston-Salem, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, Indianapolis and New York, from Medellín, from Ciudad Trujillo, from Cuenca, from Habana, from Concepción. They tell of programs already held, of programs planned and postponed, of memorial services filling the hour that had been allotted to festivities, of songs and dances replaced by earnest talks on co-operation.

The letters come in Spanish or Portuguese, English or French. A school in El Salvador "could not let Pan American Day go by without renewing in our children a zeal for



Photograph by S. Kahn

PAN AMERICAN EXHIBIT AT PORT-AU-PRINCE

Central panel of the Haitian exposition, with four of the educational leaders who organized the contributions of the participating schools.

the peace of the continent as fostered by the great president who has just died." In Concepción, Chile, every teacher in school was instructed "to begin the day on Monday, April 16 with a talk on the personality of President Roosevelt, stressing his tireless efforts to bring the American nations closer together." A Pennsylvania college reported that since its Pan American Day program "the interest in the study of the Spanish language and culture has grown remarkably."

From a small town in the interior of São Paulo a little girl wrote: "Our school wishes to know more about the other countries in America." A Costa Rican studying in Kansas said over the radio: "I have seen . . . the feeling of freedom and responsibility shown in every act. That to me is real democracy—the presence at the same time of freedom and of responsibility."

At Richmond, California, the S.S. *Pan American Victory* was christened and set afloat, after speeches by representatives of Guatemala, the Dominican Republic, and the United States. In Huetamo, Mexico, there was "a spontaneous manifestation of liking and respect for all the nations . . . as the flags of the American countries went by." In Port-au-Prince the Ligue Feminine d'Action Sociale organized a Pan American exposition with an exhibit for each of the American Republics, each prepared by a different school, and each giving a glimpse of the history, geography, and economy of one country. "In preparing the exhibit the children had to study the life and customs of the country they were to represent. . . . The children came in groups with their teachers, taking notes about the different countries."

Speakers and chairmen were chosen from all parts of the hemisphere. Brooklyn College selected as principal speaker *Ciro Alegría*, distinguished Peruvian novelist. *Israel Torrico*, Bolivian consul, gave the talk on the Seattle program. Puerto Rican Wacs formed a color guard at the statue of *Simón Bolívar* in Central Park while Dr. A. Ramón Ruiz told the New Yorkers gathered there that "inter-American solidarity is not just a government declaration. It is felt by the common people." Dr. *Francisco de Paula Gutiérrez*, Costa Rican Ambassador in the United States, and Dr. *Oscar Correia*, Consul General of Brazil, addressed the Pan American Society's postponed luncheon at the Waldorf-Astoria in New York on April 25. Fort Worth, Texas, held its Texas Pan American Relations Day on May 1, with *Enrique Ballesteros*, Mexican Consul, as master of ceremonies; and when the day was made an annual occasion the honorary chair-

man selected was *Carlos Calderón*, the Mexican Consul General whose territory in the southwestern United States has the largest Mexican population outside of Mexico.

Not only schools and universities but clubs, chambers of commerce, municipal councils, and state governments gave formal recognition to this Pan American Day. The Mayor of Cleveland, Ohio, publicly set aside April 14 as a day on which "to recognize the significance of our hemisphere relationships." "Nature has made us neighbors," he said, "let good will and cooperation make us good neighbors." The Mayor of St. Petersburg, Florida, issued a proclamation calling upon all citizens to observe April 14 with appropriate ceremonies, "thereby exemplifying the feeling of good will and amity which the people of this community entertain toward the people of the other republics of the Western Hemisphere."

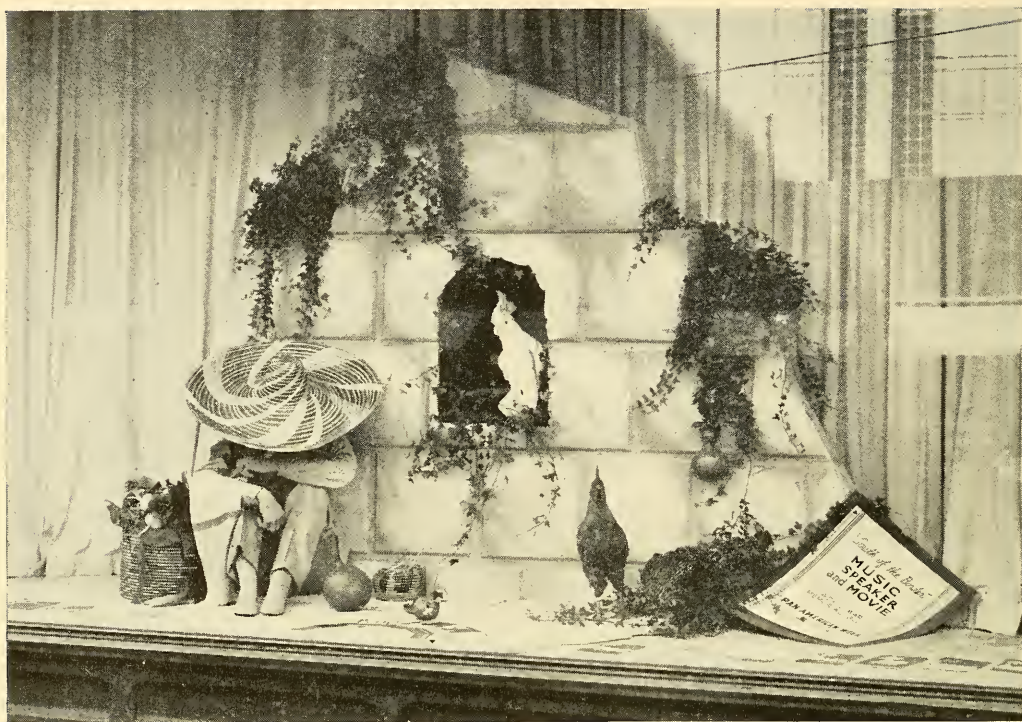
Governor Dewey of New York appointed



Photograph by S. Kahn

PANAMA'S ALCOVE

Each section of the Haitian exhibit planned by the *Ligue Feminine d'Action Sociale* was devoted to one of the American republics, and each was prepared by one of the schools in Port-au-Prince.



Photograph by Harry E. Clark

A DEPARTMENT STORE WINDOW IN INDIANAPOLIS

Civic groups, clubs, and schools took part in the Pan American program arranged by the Indiana capital's Chamber of Commerce.

the week of April 8 as Pan American Week, and called on the people of New York State "to let it be known, as widely and forcibly as possible, how anxious we are for an expansion of friendly understanding among the American peoples." A law requiring all Connecticut governors to proclaim April 14 as Pan American Day was passed by unanimous vote of both houses of the Connecticut Legislature, and directed that the day be observed in all public schools of the state.

In Colombia the Department of the Magdalena required every school in the Department to organize a center of Pan American studies made up of 21 honor students, each of the 21 to serve as leader of studies on one of the American Republics. These centers are to meet twice a month,

and are to be responsible for developing in their respective schools not only a knowledge of the historical, geographical, and economic features of the other American nations, but also a feeling of solidarity with the students and other inhabitants of those nations.

The Costa Rican Congress held a special Pan American session on the morning of April 14, opening with a memorial tribute to President Roosevelt, and continuing with an oration on the life and work of Argentina's great 19th-century liberal and teacher, President Domingo F. Sarmiento. In Brazil the Secretary of State for São Paulo recommended the formation of a Pan American club in every school in the state. Argentina held a postponed Pan American Day program in Buenos Aires on April 25, with

addresses by Vice-President Perón and representatives of Brazil, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Honduras, Peru, Venezuela, and the United States.

At Washington the House of Representatives had already passed a resolution authorizing approval of the formation of an Inter-American Parliamentary Congress of the Americas. A postponed celebration of Pan American Day was held in the House on April 24, with speeches by men of both parties, men from the east and west, from the north and south. The members were told of the recently ended conference in Mexico, and of last year's Pan American Day session of the Chilean Congress, when members of the congresses of Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Peru, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama, Uruguay, and the United States went to Santiago to be present. There was discussion of the current economic developments which have borne out the words spoken by Elihu Root at Rio de Janeiro nearly forty years ago: "There is not one of all our countries that cannot benefit the others; there is not one that cannot receive

benefit from the others; there is not one that will not gain by the prosperity, the peace, and the happiness of all."

But more than past or present, it was the future, America's future and America's part in the world's future, that haunted this Pan American Day. It was felt throughout that Pan American Day session, from the opening prayer for strength "to encourage the youth of the land to weld the precious metal of the good neighbor policy into the gold of world friendship." Franklin D. Roosevelt's last Pan American Day message was not forgotten. Written shortly before his death, and given to the world at the Governing Board's meeting in the Pan American Union on April 14, 1945, it reminded us that:

The governments and peoples of the Western Hemisphere share the understanding that maintenance of lasting peace in the Americas is bound up with maintenance of lasting peace throughout the world. To the long and difficult tasks of organizing the world for such a peace they will bring a community of principle and a rich store of common experience which will contribute greatly toward the accomplishment of this wider purpose.



Western Hemisphere Control Over Enemy Property

MARTIN DOMKE

MEASURES which have been taken for the administration of alien property in wartime must be considered from the viewpoint of an economic warfare which has wholly changed from the experience of World War I. Economic warfare had been waged in the Western Hemisphere by the Axis powers long before diplomatic relations between the American Republics and the Axis were severed. Counter-measures were enacted in most of the American Republics when it became evident that Germany had long prepared systematically to loot the European countries which it invaded in 1940. Germany tried to send over here foreign currency and securities which it found hoarded in Western Europe, and to use them in the countries of the Western Hemisphere for various purposes of espionage and fifth-column activities. It tried to do more, namely, to use the assets abroad which belonged to residents of the invaded European territories. Such assets located within the Western Hemisphere were not to be returned to Europe; on the contrary, they had to be used here in order to foster subversive activity within the various American countries in favor of the Axis powers.

Countermeasures had to be introduced in this Hemisphere. They are generally known as the blocking of foreign assets by the so-called freezing regulations. Further

restrictions have been placed on the import and export of foreign currency and securities. The blacklisting system is another means of waging economic warfare. Finally, administration of enemy and enemy-controlled property through supervision of management (and other intervention) and liquidation of seized assets by different means of expropriation and nationalization are some of the legislative and administrative measures which were enacted in the countries of the Western Hemisphere to counterbalance the effects of the Axis' economic warfare.

I

When Germany invaded Western Europe in the spring of 1940, the only country of the Western Hemisphere which had already enacted measures against this Axis power was Canada, at war with Germany since September 1939. The Trading with the Enemy legislation of September 5, 1939,¹ was applied to the assets belonging to residents in territories occupied by Germany, in ordering "the protective custody of property of persons residing in proscribed territory."² The United States reacted to the prospective use of looted assets with a measure which might not have been foreseen by the invader: it blocked immediately, on April 10, 1940,³ all assets belonging to residents of the occupied countries to nullify "attempts by the Axis to gain title to the billions of dollars in assets belonging to nationals of the countries overrun by the

Revised reprint from Symposium on "Enemy Property" (1945), 11 Law and Contemporary Problems, p. 3.

Axis."⁴ At the Habana Conference of the American Republics held in July 1940, it was agreed that each of the governments should take the necessary measures to suppress activities inspired by foreign governments or by foreign nationals which might subvert the democratic institutions of any of the Republics.⁵ Some of the Latin American Republics followed the example of the United States in enacting freezing regulations against Germany's use of assets of invaded countries, *e.g.*, Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela.⁶ The effectiveness of such measures, however, might sometimes be considered doubtful, as, for instance, the freezing regulations introduced in Argentina as early as April 1940.

When Germany undertook new aggressions in the spring of 1941 against the Balkans, and later against Russia, the freezing regulations of the United States were extended to the assets of nearly all European countries on June 14, 1941⁷ and on July 26, 1941⁸ when Japan overran Indo-China, the control was invoked against Japan and China. In the same way, Canada extended its Trading with the Enemy legislation to apply to all countries occupied by the Axis powers as "proscribed territories."⁹

On July 17, 1941, the United States began to issue the Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals, known as the blacklist, which was officially recognized or used as a basis for local controls by some of the Latin American Republics.¹⁰

After Pearl Harbor, the declarations of war by the United States were immediately followed by nine American Republics, while other countries broke off diplomatic relations with the Axis powers in December 1941, or shortly after the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held in Rio de Janeiro on January 15, 1942.¹¹ A Resolution adopted

at that meeting recommended that the American Republics "cut off for the duration of the present hemispheric emergency all commercial and financial intercourse, direct or indirect, between the Western Hemisphere and the nations signatory to the Tripartite Pact and the territories dominated by them."¹² It further provided for the supervision of all transactions of aliens of enemy nationality who are residents in the American Republics, and for a conference of representatives of the central banks of all Republics to draft standards of procedure for the uniform handling of all transactions of "real or juridical persons who are nationals of a state which has committed an act of aggression against the American Continent."¹³ Accordingly, the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control was held in Washington in June-July, 1942. The Final Act of July 10, 1942,¹⁴ recommended measures to be adopted by each country for the elimination of Axis influence. Of special interest is the seventh recommendation regarding control of business enterprises. It aims at a policy under which "in accordance with the constitutional procedure of each country, all necessary measures be adopted as soon as possible, in order to eliminate from the commercial, agricultural, industrial and financial life of the American Republics, all influence of governments, nations, and persons within such nations who, through natural or juridical persons or by any other means, are, in the opinion of the respective government, acting against the political and economic independence or security of such Republics."¹⁵ Thus, the administration of alien property in Latin American Republics will have far-reaching consequences, beyond the temporary elimination of Axis influence from wartime economy. These resolutions, which were adopted with reservations by both Argentina and Chile,¹⁶ were carried

into execution in a variety of ways (and degrees of effectiveness) through legislative and administrative measures in the American Republics.

II

For the purpose of administration of enemy property it is necessary to determine which individuals and corporations have to be considered enemies. They are the nationals of enemy countries who are residing within enemy territory, and corporations registered under enemy law. Nationals like Americans living in enemy or enemy-occupied territory have also been considered enemies within the meaning of the Trading with the Enemy legislation during both World Wars.¹⁷ The territorial test is a decisive one; one who stays in enemy territory is deemed to help the enemy economy.

On the other hand, aliens of enemy nationality who are residing in countries of the Western Hemisphere are generally not restricted in their financial and commercial transactions. Such alien enemies when they have been residents of the United States since February 23, 1942,¹⁸ are so-called generally licensed nationals of a foreign (blocked) country who are subject to practically no financial restrictions. The situation, though similar in Canada,¹⁹ is different in some Latin American Republics. There the so-called nationality test prevails. The resident of enemy nationality is subject to almost the same restrictions which are applied to assets belonging to enemy nationals residing abroad. This is the case, for instance, in Brazil,²⁰ Colombia,²¹ Guatemala,²² Haiti,²³ Mexico,²⁴ and Peru.²⁵ This problem, namely, to subject residents of enemy nationality to financial restrictions, becomes rather important in this war where funds within the countries of the Western Hemisphere have been used for Axis purposes and other fifth-column activities. Evasion

of financial wartime controls, and other inimical activities, however, are not dependent on residence, nationality, or allegiance to a foreign country. It comes down to a matter of loyalty. Thus, "the ideological and racial nature of the present war appears, in many respects, to have cut across national lines and destroyed the value of old distinctions based on nationality."²⁶ Under the legislation of most of the countries of the Western Hemisphere individuals and corporations acting on behalf of or for the benefit of enemy countries may be assimilated to enemies by administrative decision. This happened during this war with American citizens residing within this country. They were considered acting in the interest of the enemy and determined to be nationals of a foreign country (Germany), and thus blocked in their financial activity.²⁷

The loyalty test plays a decisive role in the whole field of administration of enemy property. Nationals of countries of the Western Hemisphere often serve in their own countries as cloaks for Axis interests. They control, as stockholders or through management, domestic and neutral commercial enterprises in the interest of the enemy.²⁸ Controlling enemy interest has usually been assumed when twenty-five percent of the shares of a domestic corporation are held in the interest of enemies. Such control has often, however, been exercised through long-term credit or patent agreements within the framework of international cartelization. The Axis-controlled corporation is considered an enemy for the practical purpose of administration of alien property in Canada,²⁹ in the United States,³⁰ and in some Latin American Republics such as Brazil,³¹ Costa Rica,³² Nicaragua,³³ and Uruguay.³⁴ "The enemy has also been attempting to conceal his assets by passing the chain of ownership and control through occupied and neutral countries."³⁵ The final

liquidation of enemy-controlled corporations in the common interest of the countries of this Hemisphere will involve many legal and economic problems extending well beyond the war. Thus, the Final Act of the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference (Bretton Woods) of July 22, 1944, provided (in Resolution VI) for immediate measures to prevent any disposition or transfer of enemy assets and looted property and their concealment by fraudulent means.³⁶

III

Perhaps the most effective measure of administration of alien property in wartime has been the one which was undertaken first, as a counter measure against the use of assets abroad of individuals and corporations resident in the European countries invaded by Germany in 1940. In varying degrees, the freezing regulations first introduced in Canada and in the United States in the spring of 1940 have also been enacted in most of the Latin American Republics.³⁷ Exactly how tight are these regulations, in action as well as on paper, is not exactly known; Argentina, which introduced such measures as early as April 1940 is a case in point.

Freezing regulations in all Latin American Republics were facilitated through the existing foreign exchange control.³⁸ The central banks already controlled all foreign assets and prevented them from being used outside of the country. No longer was the protection of the national currency the main purpose of foreign exchange control. To prevent these assets from being used for Axis purposes within the country now became of primary importance.

The introduction of freezing regulations, however, encountered difficulties in some Latin American countries. Special compensation or barter agreements with Germany existed, as, for instance, in the case of

Brazil,³⁹ Chile,⁴⁰ and Colombia.⁴¹ Such agreements made it impossible to cut off all commercial intercourse with the Axis powers which were debtors of the American Republics. Difficulties involved in introducing freezing regulations were further mentioned by Bolivia at the aforementioned Inter-American Conference in 1942.⁴² Special supply services in Bolivia have been operated by German firms for over forty years. These firms, with a capital of about \$6,000,000, reacted to the blocking of their funds in 1941 by restricting their imports to the eastern part of Bolivia. Thus the native population soon felt the effects of an insufficient food supply. The Bolivian Government was obliged to make the blocking measures more flexible, and to allow the operation of German-owned business to a certain extent.

IV

Other measures were taken in the countries of the Western Hemisphere to prevent the Axis powers from benefiting from foreign currencies and securities looted within the occupied territories. In European countries a tax stamp had to be attached to all securities. Bonds and shares which were sent to the United States shortly after the occupation of Western Europe, though through neutral channels, were barred from import and from any dealing by banks when they bore tax stamps or evidence that stamps had been attached.⁴³ Even securities already in this country but in the name of neutral banks have rigorously been controlled. Any disposition requires formal declarations of these banks that the transfer will not be of any interest to a national of the Axis powers.⁴⁴

Similar measures were provided for in Mexico by a Presidential Decree of August 4, 1942,⁴⁵ requiring the registration of Mexican government obligations and rail-

road securities within a certain period. All non-registered bonds would be considered as held by enemies. The New York Stock Exchange excluded unregistered Mexican bonds from being traded. Thus about sixty million dollars of Mexican bonds presumably in enemy possession were reached by this regulation. A similar measure was enacted in Guatemala,⁴⁶ which suspended the service of its four percent foreign debt pending the restamping of bonds and coupons in order to prevent them from coming into possession of persons or corporations controlled by enemy nationals.

It became further necessary to introduce a strict control of the importation of currencies into the countries of the Western Hemisphere. Dollar notes hoarded all over Europe were not allowed to enter this Hemisphere in order to prevent the building up of dollar funds or the equivalent of national currency which might be used for fifth-column activity and other means of economic warfare. Nearly all the Latin American countries followed the example of the United States, which had already restricted the import of dollar notes in the spring of 1940.⁴⁷ Thus the entrance of foreign currency was prevented and controlled by different measures, such as the withdrawal of all dollar notes in Brazil,⁴⁸ or the reporting of all currency in Mexico⁴⁹ and Uruguay,⁵⁰ or the obligation to change foreign currency into national currency as in Paraguay⁵¹ and Peru.⁵² Furthermore, the export of currency has been controlled in almost every American Republic. Travelers were allowed to export relatively small amounts of currency.⁵³ Mexico made an agreement with the United States, on August 12, 1942,⁵⁴ which provided for a detailed regulation of export and import of currencies aimed at preventing the proper disposition within the Western Hemisphere of currency looted by the Axis powers.

v

Problems reaching far beyond wartime conditions are involved in the practice of commercial blacklisting. Individuals and commercial firms, mostly in neutral countries but also in territories of the United Nations, deemed to be serving Axis interests are to be treated as enemies and thus to be subject to all sanctions of economic warfare. Such persons and firms have had their assets frozen and all movements of funds have been stopped. Canada, under statutory provisions, publishes Lists of Specified Persons.⁵⁵ The United States introduced on July 17, 1941,⁵⁶ the so-called Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals. The blacklists are revised from time to time by addition of names or by deletion. Deletion is frequently the result of liquidation, transfer or "clean-up" of an enterprise; sometimes it is the result of change in policy, death, change of residence, recognition of error; mere change in the listed person's pro-Axis leanings is probably insufficient, *per se*, for deletion.⁵⁷

Some of the American Republics used the United States Proclaimed List as the basis of some local control, *e.g.*, Bolivia,⁵⁸ Costa Rica,⁵⁹ Ecuador,⁶⁰ Guatemala,⁶¹ and Nicaragua.⁶² Mexico⁶³ and Cuba⁶⁴ publish from time to time names of specified individuals and of firms which are to be considered enemies. When Haiti based certain local controls on the United States blacklist long before it severed diplomatic relations with Germany,⁶⁵ the German chargé d'affaires protested to the Haitian Government, claiming that it had allowed an interference of the United States in its sovereignty, a claim strongly rejected by Haiti.⁶⁶

In order not to disturb any regular commercial relations of the United States with the Latin American Republics, the whole Western Hemisphere has been declared a so-called generally licensed trade area⁶⁷ with which

any transaction is licensed unless it concerns a blacklisted firm or nationals of foreign (blocked) countries outside the Western Hemisphere.

The blacklisting system, besides its legal effects in the commercial field,⁶⁸ involves economic problems for the countries eliminating Axis interests. A blacklisted firm, for instance, will be cut off from bank credits; imports from other countries are no longer allowed to reach it, and exports are no longer possible.⁶⁹ How does this firm continue to operate, and what will become of its numerous employees? A committee of the Colombian Senate called attention to the injustices and injuries suffered by the businessmen of that country.⁷⁰ In Guatemala, for instance, German interests predominantly controlled coffee plantations.⁷¹ The Guatemalan delegation at the aforementioned Inter-American Conference, made the following statement:⁷² "Coffee interests are diverse: there are the interests of the owners of plantations; of the Guatemalans who work in these plantations; of the banks that furnish the credits which finance the gathering of the crops; the interests of the creditors who hold mortgages, and of the government which derives a large part of the national income from export taxes."⁷³ The United States and Great Britain have agreed⁷⁴ that "the continuation of the Proclaimed and Statutory Lists⁷⁵ will be necessary following the cessation of organized resistance in Germany. This action is required in order to permit the Allied Governments to deal properly with firms which have been part and parcel of the Axis effort to gain world domination."

VI

The control of enemy property in the countries of the Western Hemisphere has as its major objective the cutting off of all financial and commercial transactions which

might be of benefit to the Axis powers. This control has been exercised through freezing regulations, restrictions on the movement of securities and currency, severance of communications, the blacklisting system, preclusive buying of commodities, export restrictions to neutral countries, and through other measures of economic warfare.

The elimination of Axis influence and control over any part of the national economy of the Western Hemisphere will be the final aim of administration of enemy property in the various countries. To provide the information necessary for effective measures, a census of all foreign property became necessary. Such a census was required, in the United States, on September 3, 1941;⁷⁶ all persons owning, holding, or controlling any type of property in which there was a foreign interest, direct or indirect, had to report the ownership of such property to the Treasury Department. Similar measures were adopted in Canada.⁷⁷ Some Latin American Republics required the reporting of all such assets, *e.g.*, Brazil,⁷⁸ Chile,⁷⁹ Cuba,⁸⁰ Ecuador,⁸¹ and Mexico.⁸² Further measures to obtain necessary information required reports on employees of Axis nationality in Brazil⁸³ and Cuba.⁸⁴

The control, however, would not become effective were it not aimed at the elimination of all financial and commercial influence or activity of interests which have been inimical to the defense of the Western Hemisphere. Such control has been exercised through a variety of methods, *viz.*, the supervision of commercial activities by the use of intervention by representatives of the government, by control of licensed operation of business enterprises, and through different types of regulations. In the United States there are General Orders of the Alien Property Custodian which generally have the purpose of getting information over certain classes of property, espe-

cially patents and other industrial property rights. Supervisory Orders are further used by the Alien Property Custodian especially as a flexible device to control property of residents of enemy-occupied countries.⁸⁵ A similar device, one which does not *ipso facto* vest title in the government, is usually used by central banks of some American Republics, *e.g.*, Brazil,⁸⁶ Haiti.⁸⁷ Sometimes when more than bank experience is required, specific interventors for the supervision of enemy property have been designated, *e.g.*, Cuba,⁸⁸ or Honduras.⁸⁹ Sometimes particular interests such as farms belonging to alien enemies are administered by special agencies as in Guatemala by the National Mortgage Credit Association⁹⁰ or in Costa Rica by the Agricultural Industrial Production Cooperative.⁹¹ It seems, however, that more and more in all American Republics a centralized control is exercised, as through the Custodian (Department of the Secretary of the State) in Canada, the Alien Property Custodian in the United States, and in some of the Latin-American Republics through central agencies like the Council of Administration of Enemy Property in Argentina, the Board of Economic Defense in Bolivia, the Economic Defense Commission in Brazil, the National Economic Defense Commission in Colombia, the Alien Property Custodian Board in Costa Rica, the Interventor for the Property of Enemy Aliens in Cuba, the Office for the Control of Blocked Properties in Ecuador, the Special Board of Control of Foreign Funds in Honduras, the Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business in Mexico, the Advisory Committee on Alien Property in Nicaragua, and the Alien Property Custodian Commission in Venezuela.

VII

The most important type of administration of enemy-controlled property is its

transfer to the government of the country where it is located. Thus in the United States, the Alien Property Custodian has issued more than five thousand Vesting Orders by which the Custodian as a representative of the United States government took absolute title to the specified foreign-owned property. Thus most of the enemy interests in business enterprises and in industrial property rights were effectively subjected to government control. The control of enemy property may not be effectively pursued if the enemy influence on the national economy of the Republic will not be definitely removed. Such final disposition of enemy property will be most adequately effected when enemy properties are not only put under national management or vested in the government, but definitely transferred into private ownership and thus incorporated into the national economy of the Western Hemisphere.

The nationalization of enemy property becomes of primary importance and more or less the final aim of its administration. Assets now held by the Alien Property Custodian are disposed of in this country, through public bidding. They will be sold, however, only to American citizens or organizations controlled by American citizens not on the Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals. Bids should be accompanied by an affidavit that the bidder is not purchasing on behalf of an undisclosed principal, a person not a citizen of the United States, or for resale to a non-citizen.⁹² Similar provisions for sale of enemy property in public auctions are provided for in Argentina,⁹³ Brazil,⁹⁴ Colombia,⁹⁵ Costa Rica,⁹⁶ Haiti,⁹⁷ Honduras,⁹⁸ and Peru.⁹⁹

Enemy property is disposed of in the different American Republics in various ways. No uniformity of administration exists, and it seems to be immaterial what the act of disposition of enemy property is called. The

seizure and disposition of enemy property under the legislation of the respective countries is sometimes called custodianship¹⁰⁰ or fiduciary administration,¹⁰¹ sometimes liquidation¹⁰² or expropriation,¹⁰³ sometimes confiscation¹⁰⁴ or nationalization.¹⁰⁵ No final determination on vested enemy property or on the proceeds of its liquidation has been made in Canada,¹⁰⁶ for instance, nor as yet in the United States by Congress.¹⁰⁷ In Mexico a law of January 17, 1943¹⁰⁸ provides that the final disposition of enemy properties will be determined in peace treaties. Sometimes as in Costa Rica,¹⁰⁹ or in Venezuela¹¹⁰ special regulations have been prescribed for the valuation and indemnification of seized Axis-controlled property.

Sometimes the proceeds of enemy property are to be deposited in the central bank of the Republic, as in Argentina,¹¹¹ Chile,¹¹² Ecuador,¹¹³ Haiti,¹¹⁴ or Mexico.¹¹⁵ Sometimes it has been provided that such proceeds are to be invested in national securities, as in Nicaragua,¹¹⁶ or in Peru.¹¹⁷ Sometimes, as in Colombia,¹¹⁸ a fiduciary administration of enemy property shall be maintained "until reparation has been made for all damages inflicted on the Colombian nation or its citizens by the German nation or its citizens," whereas the recent Argentine decree¹¹⁹ provided that German and Japanese assets "must also respond to the payment of indemnities arising from damage and injury suffered during the course of the present war by the Nation, by Argentine citizens, or by enterprises belonging to Argentine citizens." Costa Ricans¹²⁰ who have been prisoners of war or have been confined in concentration camps will be indemnified from funds confiscated from enemy nationals; in Cuba¹²¹ the formation of a Union of Property Owners Damaged by Enemy Action was authorized. The general aim of administration

of enemy property in nearly all countries of the Western Hemisphere is to eliminate definitely Axis influence from any substantial influence on the national economy. Certain assets are to be incorporated into the national domain. Divergent interests of the different countries, however, should not exclude a Western Hemisphere solution for the final disposition of enemy-controlled property.¹²² Moreover, international measures will become necessary when creditors of former owners of vested or liquidated enemy property try to get satisfaction out of the proceeds in whatever country the assets may be located.

It is for that reason that the Final Act of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace (Mexico City) of March 8, 1945,¹²³ provided in Resolution XIX (Control of Enemy Property) for adequate measures not only "to uncover, to disclose, to immobilize, and to prevent the concealment or transfer"¹²⁴ of Axis property within the Western Hemisphere, but also for the restitution of "property unjustly taken from other peoples," namely "property the control of which the enemy has obtained by dispossession, looting, violence, fraud, intimidation and other like acts."¹²⁵ Thus the program of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference to be held in Washington, D. C., on November 15, 1945, provides¹²⁶ for "Consideration of the results of the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control and current objectives with respect to economic and financial controls: the concealment of enemy assets and foreign holdings, the flight of enemy capital, and restitution of looted property; the control and ultimate disposition of enemy property and property rights subjected to governmental control during the war." The disposition of enemy property thus becomes subject to more or less uniform solutions. They should soon

be provided for in the common economic interest of the countries of the Western Hemisphere.

¹ Replaced by the *Revised Regulations Respecting Trading with the Enemy* (1943), Order in Council of November 13, 1943, P. C. 8526.

² May 11, 1940, Order in Council, P. C. 1936, 2 PROCLAMATIONS AND ORDERS IN COUNCIL 85 (1940).

³ Exec. Order No. 8389, 5 FED. REG., p. 1400 (1940). For amendments and further regulations see U. S. Treasury Dept., *Documents Pertaining to Foreign Funds Control* (March 30, 1944).

⁴ U. S. Treas. Dept.'s Press Release No. 34, April 21, 1942, Documents, *ante* footnote 3, p. 122.

⁵ Pan American Union, CONGRESS AND CONFERENCE SERIES No. 44 (1943), p. 6.

⁶ Pan American Union, CONGRESS AND CONFERENCE SERIES No. 40 (1942), pp. 17, 22, 37, 39, 45.

⁷ Exec. Order No. 8785, 6 FED. REG. 2897 (1941).

⁸ Exec. Order No. 8832, 6 FED. REG. 8786 (1941).

⁹ Orders in Council, P. C. 1561, 1562, 9590.

¹⁰ See *post* footnotes 58-66.

¹¹ See the tabulations in (1944) 10 DEPT. OF STATE BULL., pp. 373, 413, and (1945) 79 BULL. PAN AMERICAN UNION, p. 406.

¹² (1942) 36 AMER. J. OF INT. L., Supp. p. 71.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 72.

¹⁴ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 137; cf. Manuel C. Gallagher, *Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control* (1942), 76 BULL. PAN AMERICAN UNION, p. 481; Manuel Félix Maúrtua, *Consideraciones al margen de la Conferencia de Control Económico* (1942), 2 REVISTA PERUANA DE DERECHO INTERNACIONAL, p. 432; cf. Comité Consultativo de Emergencia para la Defensa Política SEGUNDO INFORME ANUAL (Montevideo, 1944), p. 146.

¹⁵ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 155.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 159; cf. Chile: Pres. Decree No. 345, May 31, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, July 6, 1944; Argentina: Pres. Decree of March 31, 1945, concerning enemy property.

¹⁷ For court decisions, see Martin Domke, *TRADING WITH THE ENEMY IN WORLD WAR II* (New York, 1943), p. 26.

¹⁸ U. S. Treas. Dept., General License No. 42, as amended, 7 FED. REG., p. 1492 (1942).

¹⁹ See *Trefniece v. Martin* (1939), 4 D. L. R. 737.

²⁰ Brazil: Decree-law No. 4166, March 11, 1942, Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 18.

²¹ Colombia: Decree No. 915, April 9, 1942, DIARIO OFICIAL, April 17, 1942.

²² Guatemala: Decree No. 2655, December 23, 1941, as amended, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, February 24, 1942.

²³ Haiti: Decree-law No. 80, December 18, 1941, LE MONITEUR, December 18, 1941.

²⁴ Mexico: Decree, June 13, 1942, Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 35.

²⁵ Peru: Decree No. 9586, April 10, 1942, EL PERUANO, April 22, 1942.

²⁶ *Alien Enemies and Japanese-Americans: A Problem of Wartime Controls* (1942), 51 YALE L. J., pp. 1318, 1337; cf. Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense, ANNUAL REPORT (Montevideo, 1943; English edition), p. 49.

²⁷ See *Drager Shipping Co. v. Crowley*, 49 F. SUPP. 215 and 55 F. SUPP. 906 (1943, 1944).

²⁸ Martin Domke, *Compañías Controladas por el Enemigo* (1943), 22 REVISTA DE DERECHO INTERNACIONAL, p. 184.

²⁹ Canada: Revised Regulations, *ante* footnote 1, sec. 8.

³⁰ Exec. Order No. 8389, as amended, sec. 5E(ii), 6 FED. REG., p. 2897 (1941).

³¹ Brazil: Resolutions Nos. 64 and 65, Economic Defense Commission, May 10, 1943, DIÁRIO OFICIAL, May 12, 1943.

³² Costa Rica: Decree No. 52, December 26, 1941, GACETA OFICIAL, December 27, 1941.

³³ Nicaragua: Presidential Decree No. 52, December 26, 1941, LA GACETA, December 27, 1941.

³⁴ Uruguay: Exec. Order No. 700-40, September 14, 1942, DIARIO OFICIAL, September 19, 1942.

³⁵ (1944) 11 DEPT. OF STATE BULL., p. 383.

³⁶ U. S. Dept. of State, CONFERENCE SERIES 55 (1944), p. 22; see *post* footnotes 124-126.

³⁷ *Ante* footnotes 3-6.

³⁸ See Olson and Hickman, PAN AMERICAN ECONOMICS (New York, 1943), p. 320.

³⁹ See U. S. Tariff Commission, FOREIGN-TRADE AND EXCHANGE CONTROLS IN GERMANY (Report No. 150, Second Series, 1942), p. 171.

⁴⁰ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, pp. 21, 48.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 15.

⁴³ U. S. Treas. Dept. Gen. Ruling No. 6, as amended May 18, 1943, 8 FED. REG., p. 6595 (1943).

⁴⁴ U. S. Treas. Dept. Gen. Ruling No. 17, October 20, 1943, 8 FED. REG., p. 14,341 (1943).

⁴⁵ As amended December 16, 1943, DIARIO OFICIAL, December 24, 1943.

⁴⁶ Guatemala: Legislative Decree No. 2766, March 30, 1944, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, May 2, 1944.

⁴⁷ U. S. Treas. Dept. Gen. Ruling No. 5, as amended September 3, 1943, 8 FED. REG., p. 12,286 (1943).

⁴⁸ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 19.

⁴⁰ Mexico: Decree of December 11, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, December 20, 1944.

⁴¹ Uruguay: Decree of June 18, 1942, DIARIO OFICIAL, September 11, 1942.

⁴² Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 39.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

⁴⁴ Chile: September 1, 1942, EL MERCURIO, Santiago, September 2, 1942; Costa Rica: September 13, 1942, LA GACETA, September 17, 1942; Dominican Republic: Decree No. 343, GACETA OFICIAL, November 9, 1942; Ecuador: August 12, 1942, REGISTRO OFICIAL, August 17, 1942; El Salvador: October 22, 1942, DIARIO OFICIAL, October 27, 1942.

⁴⁵ U. S. Treas. Dept. Press Release No. 39, DOCUMENTS, *ante* footnote 3, p. 127. *Cf.* N. Y. TIMES, Jan. 4, 1945, p. 30, col. 4.

⁴⁶ Canada: REVISED REGULATIONS, *ante* footnote 1, sec. 1(d)viii.

⁴⁷ Pres. Proc. No. 2497, 6 FED. REG., p. 3555 (1941).

⁴⁸ See *Proclaimed List is Being Reduced to a Marked Degree* (1945), 79 FOREIGN COMMERCE WEEKLY No. 6, p. 9.

⁴⁹ Bolivia, December 12, 1941, Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 15.

⁵⁰ Costa Rica, October 10, 1941, *ibid.*, p. 24.

⁵¹ Ecuador: Presidential Decree No. 854, June 11, 1943, REGISTRO OFICIAL, June 23, 1943.

⁵² Guatemala: Presidential Decree No. 3153, Oct. 6, 1944, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, Oct. 7, 1944.

⁵³ Nicaragua: Presidential Decree No. 70, December 16, 1941, LA GACETA, December 18, 1941.

⁵⁴ Mexico: Lists of Firms and Persons included under the Provisions of the Law on Enemy Property and Business, as amended February 24, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, March 29, 1944.

⁵⁵ Cuba: Resolution No. 26, August 18, 1942, GACETA OFICIAL, August 21, 1942.

⁵⁶ Haiti, on December 29, 1941, Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 32A.

⁵⁷ The whole correspondence is published in LE MONITEUR (1941), pp. 521, 528, 534.

⁵⁸ U. S. Treas. Dept. Gen. License No. 53 as amended February 21, 1944, 9 FED. REG., p. 2084 (1944).

⁵⁹ Martin Domke, *Some of the Legal Questions Involved in Commercial Blacklisting* (1943), 48 EXPORT TRADE AND SHIPPER, No. 12, p. 30. For a Guatemalan case, see Frances Kellor, *Inter-American Commercial Arbitration* (1944), 78 BULL. PAN AMERICAN UNION, p. 218, at p. 222, no. 5.

⁶⁰ See Paraguay: Pres. Decree of August 18, 1944, forbidding official institutions to acquire merchandise of any kind from firms on the Proclaimed List, INDUSTRIAL Y COMERCIAL, Asunción, September 1944.

⁶¹ Percy W. Bidwell, *Our Economic Warfare* (1942), 20 FOREIGN AFFAIRS, pp. 421, 427.

⁶² *Government Custodianship of Coffee Plantations in Guatemala* (1943), 77 BULL. PAN AMERICAN UNION, p. 488.

⁶³ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 32. Guatemala levies an extraordinary war tax on exports of coffee, seed, and wax from controlled plantations. Legislative Decree No. 2764, March 30, 1944, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, May 2, 1944.

⁶⁴ As to the sale of assets of Central American Plantations Corp., an enterprise controlled by U. S. Alien Property Custodian, to the Government of Guatemala, see [FIRST] ANNUAL REPORT, Office of Alien Property Custodian (1944), p. 67, and [SECOND] ANNUAL REPORT (1945), p. 151.

⁶⁵ (1944) 11 DEPT. OF STATE BULL., p. 340.

⁶⁶ Published by the Board of Trade under the authority of Sec. 2 (2) of the British Trading with the Enemy Act, 1939, 2 and 3 Geo. VI, Ch. 89, (1942) 36 AMER. J. OF INT. L., Supp., p. 3.

⁶⁷ Public Circulars Nos. 4 and 5, 6 FED. REG., pp. 4196, 4587 (1941).

⁶⁸ Canada: Revised Regulations, *ante* footnote 1, sec. 28.

⁶⁹ Brazil: Resolution No. 50—1943, Economic Defense Commission, April 12, 1943, DIÁRIO OFICIAL, April 13, 1943.

⁷⁰ Chile: Presidential Decree No. 422, January 20, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, January 22, 1944.

⁷¹ Cuba: Presidential Decree No. 588, February 29, 1944, GACETA OFICIAL, March 15, 1944, p. 4163.

⁷² Ecuador: Decree No. 171, February 9, 1942, Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 29.

⁷³ Mexico: Decree of April 25, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, July 13, 1944.

⁷⁴ Brazil: Decree-law No. 5576, June 14, 1943, DIÁRIO OFICIAL, June 15, 1943.

⁷⁵ Cuba: Order No. 3, Office of the Interventor for the Property of Enemy Aliens, March 19, 1943, GACETA OFICIAL, March 20, 1943, p. 4654.

⁷⁶ Alien Property Custodian, [SECOND] ANNUAL REPORT (1945), p. 10.

⁷⁷ Brazil: Decree-law No. 6393, BOLETIM AÉREO No. 292, Seção de Informações, Ministério das Relações Exteriores, April 6, 1944.

⁷⁸ The National Bank was appointed as Sequestator-Liquidator General of Enemy Properties; see Annual Report of the Fiscal Department, Banque Nationale de la République d'Haïti (1942), p. 36.

⁷⁹ Pan American Union, *loc. cit.* footnote 6, p. 26.

⁸⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 33.

⁸¹ Guatemala: Presidential Decree No. 2841, July 17, 1942, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, July 24, 1942.

⁸² Costa Rica: Legislative Decree No. 49, July 22, 1943, LA GACETA, July 23, 1943.

⁸³ See SECOND ANNUAL REPORT, *ante* footnote 85, p. 49.

⁹³ Argentina: Presidential Decree No. 7032 of March 31, 1945, art. 7, BOLETÍN OFICIAL, April 17, 1945.

⁹⁴ Brazil: Resolution No. 82, Economic Defense Commission, June 28, 1943, DIÁRIO OFICIAL, June 30, 1943.

⁹⁵ Colombia: Presidential Decree No. 2605, December 24, 1943, DIARIO OFICIAL, January 5, 1944.

⁹⁶ Costa Rica: Presidential Decree No. 21, April 16, 1943, LA GACETA, April 20, 1943.

⁹⁷ Haiti: Decree of February 11, 1943, HAÏTI-JOURNAL, February 12, 1943.

⁹⁸ Honduras: Legislative Decree No. 12, December 21, 1944, LA GACETA, January 2, 1945.

⁹⁹ Peru: Supreme Decree of March 20, 1943, EL COMERCIO, March 22, 1943.

¹⁰⁰ Paraguay: Presidential Decree of September 27, 1943, EL PAÍS, Asunción, October 1, 1943.

¹⁰¹ Colombia: Presidential Decree No. 2622, December 29, 1943, DIARIO OFICIAL, December 30, 1943.

¹⁰² Brazil: Resolution No. 78, Economic Defense Commission, June 16, 1943, DIÁRIO OFICIAL, June 21, 1943. Chile: Presidential Decree No. 402, January 19, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, January 22, 1944.

¹⁰³ Bolivia: Decree of February 9, 1944, EL DIARIO, February 12, 1944; Guatemala: Presidential Decree No. 3115, June 22, 1944, DIARIO DE CENTRO AMÉRICA, June 23, 1944; Nicaragua: Law of August 6, 1943, N. Y. TIMES, August 7, 1943, p. 4, col. 6; Peru: Law No. 9958 of July 1, 1944, EL PERUANO, July 17, 1944; Venezuela: Resolution No. 6, GACETA OFICIAL, April 24, 1944.

¹⁰⁴ Costa Rica: Legislative Decree No. 49, December 28, 1943, LA GACETA, January 4, 1944.

¹⁰⁵ Haiti: Executive Decree No. 365, March 28, 1944, LE MONITEUR, March 30, 1944.

¹⁰⁶ The Canadian Revised Regulations, *ante* footnote 1, contain no provision similar to Sec. 7 (1) of the British Act, *ante* footnote 84, which provides for the appointment of custodians with a view to "preserving enemy property in contemplation of arrangements to be made at the conclusion of peace."

¹⁰⁷ See Hearing before Subcommittee No. 1 of the Committee on the Judiciary on H. R. 4840, 78th Cong., 2d. Sess., Serial No. 18 (ADMINISTRATION OF ALIEN PROPERTY, 1944).

¹⁰⁸ Mexico, DIARIO OFICIAL, February 10, 1944.

¹⁰⁹ Costa Rica: Presidential Decree No. 32, May 7, 1943, LA GACETA, May 9, 1943.

¹¹⁰ Venezuela: Presidential Decree No. 246, November 13, 1943, GACETA OFICIAL, November 13, 1943.

¹¹¹ Argentina: Presidential Decree No. 7032 of March 31, 1945, art. 7, BOLETÍN OFICIAL, April 17, 1945.

¹¹² Chile: Presidential Decree No. 427, January 20, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, January 22, 1944.

¹¹³ Ecuador: Resolution No. 34, September 4, 1944, REGISTRO OFICIAL, September 29, 1944.

¹¹⁴ Haiti: Executive Decree No. 365, March 28, 1944, LE MONITEUR, March 30, 1944.

¹¹⁵ Mexico: Law on Enemy Property and Business, as amended February 24, 1944, DIARIO OFICIAL, March 29, 1944.

¹¹⁶ Nicaragua: Law of August 6, 1943, N. Y. TIMES, August 7, 1943, p. 4, col. 6.

¹¹⁷ Peru: N. Y. TIMES, January 24, 1944, p. 3, col. 7.

¹¹⁸ Colombia: Presidential Decree No. 2622, December 29, 1943, DIARIO OFICIAL, December 30, 1943.

¹¹⁹ Argentina: Presidential Decree No. 7032 of March 31, 1945, art. 8, BOLETÍN OFICIAL, April 17, 1945.

¹²⁰ Costa Rica: Legislative Decree No. 43, January 29, 1945, LA GACETA, January 31, 1945.

¹²¹ Cuba: Presidential Decree No. 587, February 29, 1944, GACETA OFICIAL, March 15, 1944; *cf.* Pitman B. Potter, *Cuban Action for Protection of Nationals Injured in Axis States* (1945), 39 AM. J. INT. L., p. 108.

¹²² As to the Replacement Program, see [SECOND] ANNUAL REPORT, *ante* footnote 85, p. 149, and Statement of Assistant Secretary Clayton: *Security Against Renewed German Aggression* (1945), 13 DEPT. OF STATE BULL., p. 21.

¹²³ See L. S. Rowe, *The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace* (1945), 79 BULL. PAN AMERICAN UNION, p. 249.

¹²⁴ Pan American Union, CONGRESS AND CONFERENCE SERIES No. 47, p. 47.

¹²⁵ See Thomas C. Mann, *Elimination of Axis Influence in This Hemisphere* (1945), 12 DEPT. OF STATE BULL., p. 924, and Clayton, *ante* footnote 122, p. 27.

¹²⁶ Program, Section I (Adjustments from War to Peace), Sec. 4.

Notes on

Music in the Americas

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Music study in the United States by citizens of the other American Republics

FOR purposes of these *Notes*, music study in the United States by citizens of the other American republics may be classified as (1) *formative*, amateur or pre-professional, by minors, (2) *professional*, by young musicians (for instance, graduates of conservatories), and (3) *observation*, by mature persons well-established in professional life.

Formative study by persons less than 18 or 20 years of age can be pursued in most of the Latin American republics, or, at least, in a neighboring one. Experience has shown that travel to a distant music center by children for the express purpose of music study is rarely justifiable. Of course, if a child has to travel with his parents to the United States, suitable instruction can be found in all large and most small cities. It cannot be too strongly emphasized, however, that these parents should make every effort to secure only the best and most disinterested advice in the choice of masters or schools and should not merely accept the services most readily at hand. For in the United States, as in most modern countries, the bad may exist undisturbed alongside of the good. And the bad can be very bad.

Professional study is not always easy to define. Generally speaking, when a young artist has already appeared in public, when a young composer has had some works performed by professional musicians, or when a young teacher has demonstrated that he

can hold a class or advance a pupil, he is ready for the broadening experience of foreign travel and study. This is not, necessarily, to say that he could not pursue his studies and ripen into a mature artist by remaining in his native country. It is to say that there is a choice here—on the one hand, to limit the already existing cosmopolitan influence in his life by remaining at home, or, on the other, to extend and deepen this influence by actual visits to great cosmopolitan centers. Either choice may strengthen narrow nationalistic or chauvinistic tendencies. But either may, similarly, strengthen an international viewpoint and tendencies toward cultural cooperation. Majority opinion seems at present to favor the latter possibility. However, a good deal depends upon the musical handling of each particular case, though even more, perhaps, depends upon general or extra-musical factors and, of course, upon the factor of personality.

Observation study of music activity in the United States by professional musicians who are distinguished leaders in their native lands is of two main types. On the one hand, there may exist a genuine desire to discover and critically to evaluate what is seen and heard. On the other, the observation may be not of what exists in the way of North American production but rather of what receptivity there is to the publicizing of the music of the visitor's country or to the exploiting of his personal abilities or productions. The music activity of the United States is open to both types of ob-

servation. Needless to say, however, care must be taken in the United States as elsewhere lest the second type appear to suggest exploitation in a crude form.

In respect to fields of study for professional students, fairly accurate information may be found in the pamphlet *Opportunities for Advanced Study of Music in the United States*.¹ This is a list of advanced courses offered during the year 1941-42 by 72 schools, colleges, universities and conservatories. Many of the courses have been discontinued during the war emergency. Comparatively few additions have been made. A number of changes and an increase in variety of subjects may be anticipated after the war with Japan is concluded. The survey gives, nevertheless, a rough general idea of the present situation. By and large, the quantity of courses found under any one heading in the list indicates the relative emphasis given to the subject among educators. Qualitatively, the courses vary enormously. Visitors should make their selection with extreme care—not too hastily, but well in advance, and only under the best and most disinterested guidance.

Somewhat the same emphasis and surely the same variation in quality is found in private instruction available throughout the country.

The mature professional observer will have either a special field or group of fields in which he is interested, or he will want to see the music activity of the country as a whole and how it is integrated in the culture at large. In the first case, he should, as should the young professional student, be under the best possible guidance before leaving his own country. His tour should be carefully planned and executed without haste, as are those of the distinguished lead-

ers invited by the Department of State. In the second case, the visiting observer is embarking upon a voyage of discovery unfamiliar to most people even in the United States. While the music activity of the country is, as a matter of fact, highly organized, it is organized in compartments most of which know little or nothing of their companion compartments. The attempt to see the entire extensive and highly diversified picture as a whole has only recently been made, and chiefly, it would appear, under leadership in Washington—for the United States a new and precedent-destroying phenomenon. By reporting what he sees and possibly by devising new techniques of survey, the visitor may contribute not only to his own store of knowledge but to that of the land he is visiting as well. In this connection it may be appropriate to point out that North Americans like to see themselves as others see them, especially when the foreign critic is courteous and constructive in his judgments. Sometimes, indeed, they like criticism when it is brusque or even ill-natured, if, still, it is true.

Perhaps a few words should be said here about the music "season" in the eastern cities. Ordinarily, this begins in October and tapers off in April. With the increase of out-of-doors concerts and the greater elaboration of summer schools, art colonies, etc., the summer is less of a wasteland for visiting musicians than in former times. Many visitors from the south, however, find the summer climate in the eastern half of the country unpleasantly hot and humid. Arrival there in the fall rather than in the summer is to be recommended, unless some intensive coaching in the English language is desired before the visitor makes formal entrance into music life. Summer institutes of intensive coaching are given in a number of places, as for instance, Bucknell University, at Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, and the

¹ Brooks, Catherine. "Opportunities for advanced Study of Music in the United States," *Pan American Union, Music Series No. 8, Washington, 1943.*

University of Michigan, at Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Of prime importance is the matter of costs of living. The most reasonable rates can be had at institutions outside of, or at least in the suburbs of, the large cities. Prices for board and lodging range from \$20-\$25 per week. International Houses, YMCA and YWCA dormitories, etc., when room is available, have been found satisfactory and about as inexpensive as college dormitories. We have heard of students getting along on \$100 a month. But this is not to be recommended, since there is too little left, after board and lodging are paid, to cover clothes, laundry, medical fees, concert tickets, tuition, books, music, etc. Minimum decent living income (exclusive of travel) would seem to run about as follows: single person, \$200 per month; man and wife, \$300; man, wife and one child, \$350; man, wife and two children, \$400. These estimates ensure modest but comfortable living and presume good health.

Travel is another matter. The cheapest railroad travel is two to three cents a mile. Hotel rooms average \$4 a day, meals \$3. Taxi fares, telephone calls and telegrams, and the host of unavoidable small expenses increase with travel, especially for foreigners who do not know all the small ways in which natives may economize.

It is by all means desirable that visitors possess a fair knowledge of English before arriving in the United States. They should have thorough health examinations before they leave their own country. No special inoculations are necessary. But it is always advisable to carry accident insurance with hospitalization.

The problem of financial assistance from United States sources is one that should be discussed here because there is so little knowledge of the exact state of affairs. This is due in part to the fact that conditions

have changed radically during the war. In 1941-42 there was more money available than worthy projects to spend it on. Now, there is a glut of worthy projects—projects, indeed, far more worthy than most of those thought out in earlier times—but not one-tenth the money to pay for them. This decrease is partly due to the assertion of a traditional distrust on the part of the representatives of the people toward subsidization of the arts. But it is due also to increase in the number of projects in the fields of sanitation, food, housing, economic and social development, etc. Furthermore, the exact nature of the role of music in culture and cultural cooperation is not understood. Some broad generalities are widely accepted. But there always comes a time in the dispensing of funds when something more than generalities is asked for. This, the friends of music have never been able to give. Studies are on foot which may answer more specifically some of the questions asked. There is hope that besides being recognized generally as a social good in itself, music may eventually be proven to be "good for" other things.

Experience has shown that the most common forms of aid for study in the United States from sources within that country which are available to foreign students have been: (1) tuition scholarships; (2) maintenance scholarships; (3) travel grants (for special travel within the country); (4) overall fellowships to advanced students; and (5) grants to distinguished leaders.

Tuition scholarships for music students are generously granted by the smaller schools, colleges, and conservatories and by those located at some distance from large music centers. Some of these may include or be combined with maintenance scholarships (board and lodging). The larger and better-known institutions do not as a rule grant even tuition scholarships except upon

personal application. Furthermore, this must take place at least six months in advance; say, in April for the academic year beginning in September or October. Regular charges for tuition may vary from \$150 to \$500 a year. Charges for summer schools and music camps (usually lasting six to eight weeks) may come to about the same amount but include board and lodging.

Special travel grants have been, upon rare occasions, available. Their issuance at the present time would, however, be most unusual.

Over-all fellowships and grants to distinguished leaders for the purpose of visiting the country have been available from two main sources: (1) foundations, (2) government. Among the former, the Guggenheim Foundation makes its awards upon personal application, usually for creative work in an art or a science by comparatively young people who have already demonstrated unusual capacity. The rare grants made by other foundations to foreign students are usually a result of individual arrangement. Grants by foundations to distinguished leaders in the field of music have been rare. Francisco Curt Lange was one of the first to be so honored during the present period. In 1942, the Pan American Union received a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation through which it was possible to invite five outstanding music educators to the United States to attend a biennial convention of the Music Educators National Conference. These were: José Castañeda, Juan Bautista Plaza, Antonio Sá Pereira, Luis Sandi, and Domingo Santa Cruz. United States Government funds have been allocated both to advanced students (mostly in the field of music education) and to distinguished leaders. For the former, application must be made to the special Selection Committees in the American Embassies in the various capitals. Among the distinguished leaders who

have accepted invitations from the United States Government are: Luiz Heitor Corrêa de Azevedo, Domingo Santa Cruz, Francisco and Liddy Mignone, Eugenio Pereira Salas, Rubén Carámbula, José Siqueira, Carlos Chávez, and Camargo Guarnieri. Fernando Ortiz, Enrique de Marchena, Carlos Raygada and Narciso Garay visited the country under auspices other than those of music, as did Eugenio Pereira Salas for his second trip. Vicente T. Mendoza and Luis Sandi have lectured in American universities.

It has been the experience of those of us who have planned, watched, and cooperated in the actual conduct of these visits that the basic grants to visitors are never sufficient for the most profitable use of the time and effort expended. In many—perhaps most—cases, the visitors have brought with them additional funds of their own, which have been spent at a rate alarming to them. The apparent inadequacy of some grants is difficult to explain to those holding them. It seems to be due to a survival of the romantic notion that students are morally bound to live on bread and water and can do so. Evidently, it is assumed by some donors that an allowance is more a *contribution towards* a desired end rather than a full budget for the achieving of that end. It would be well were this point more generally comprehended by recipients of grants. In terms of their own currencies, even modest allowances from the United States seem adequate. But differentials in cost of living are deceptive until actually met. This is especially true in the world of professional music. It is a very prosperous world. The visitor has not only his own *amour propre* to consider but also the honor of his country, of which, inevitably, he is a representative. Whether or not he is an official guest, he perforce embodies a semblance of one, and this accentuates the fact that he does not want to appear as a poor relation or a petitioner.

And the United States musicians who think about the matter do not want him to either. It would be wise therefore to have it clearly stated in all but the most sumptuous grants that the sum allowed is only a *basic mini-*

mum, and that the recipient should, for best results to himself and for good feeling all around, bring with him up to 50 per cent additional funds for the imponderables of the venture.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Chilean Consumers' League

As a result of the Congress of Women, attended by 503 delegates, which was held at Santiago last October, it was decided to organize a Federation of Women's Organizations. Among the duties of this Federation are to stimulate activities of member groups and to use every effort to preserve the democratic way of life, with which women's rights are inextricably bound up.

One of the first acts of the Federation was to organize a forum on votes for women in the University of Chile. A number of members of Congress attended and promised to support the suffrage movement.

One group of women has organized a Consumers' League. It plans to teach the public, especially housewives, the most economical ways of purchasing food. It has also taken up the question of revising the courses in domestic science so that they will conform more closely with the money that people in general have to spend and with the food products that are available. The public is also being instructed concerning its rights in relation to purchases of food and other necessities.

The special committee of the Consumers' League working on these projects is composed of Señora Clara Williams de Iunge,

of the Women's Bureau of the Ministry of Labor, Srta. Graciela Mandujano, Chief of Health Education of the Inter-American Co-operative Health Program, and Srta. Digna Muñoz, a labor inspector. It will be recalled that Señora de Iunge was in this country last year as an intern of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor.

Women's rights in Peru

The Peruvian delegate on the Inter-American Commission of Women, Señora Aurora Cáceres, addressed a cablegram to Dr. José Luis Bustamante y Rivero, requesting that on becoming President of Peru he grant to women the right of unrestricted citizenship, so that they may vote and hold office.

Dr. Susana Solano, Secretary-General of the Eugenics Congresses, was responsible for the publication of a petition addressed to Dr. Bustamante y Rivero. Requesting him to include in his platform the grant of political rights to women, the petition asked that on his induction into office he should:

Put in practice the right of municipal suffrage.
Take steps to give five seats to women in the next Congress.

Grant active citizenship and limited suffrage.
Advocate equal pay for equal work.

Increase social security for women in the young and old age groups.

Give women access to high posts in the judiciary.

Permit them to hold executive positions in the Ministry of Public Education and in Maternal and Child Welfare.

Prohibit brothels and licensed prostitution.

Grant the return to the country of exiled Peruvians.

This petition was signed by more than eighty women in various activities: lawyers, doctors, engineers, dentists, aviators, writers, newspaper women, artists, pharmacists, chemists, teachers, social workers, nurses, shopkeepers, secretaries, university women, office workers, college graduates, seamstresses, and other workers.

One of the women's organizations working hard to secure the vote is La Liga Femenina Pro Cultura.

Colombian Women's Union

On May 4, 1945, the General Assembly of the Unión Femenina de Colombia elected the following officers: president, Srta. Rosa María Moreno Aguilera; vice-president, Srta. Ilda Alicia Carriazo; auditor, Doctor

Rosita Rojas Castro; secretary-general, Srta. América Martínez Sanders; and treasurer, Srta. Inés Páez C. Besides the officers there are seven members of the Executive Committee and seven alternates.

Women's activities in Argentina

There has been a great deal of activity among some groups of Argentine women, especially since the appearance on May 30 of the Statute of Political Parties which denies women the right to vote. In Córdoba there was a large and enthusiastic meeting in favor of women's suffrage. Other meetings in San Juan, Buenos Aires, General Uriburu, Bahía Blanca, and Tres Arroyos discussed various problems pertaining to women's rights, including the right to work and to engage in any liberal profession. Equal pay for equal work and suffrage were other points in the program at Rosario. Participation of women in political life was considered to entail a better preparation. In Paraná the Asociación Femenina de Acción Rural proposed to take steps to form closer ties between country and city women.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART XLII

ARGENTINA

19*f*. June 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,712, authorizing the Income Tax Office to appoint comptrollers in firms belonging to foreigners of belligerent non-American countries, with the exception of banks and insurance companies which will be controlled by the Central Bank of Argentina and the Insurance Control Office, respectively; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, December 1944.)

130*a*. June 13, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 15,385, creating "security zones" throughout the country, to include a strip along all land and sea boundaries and a belt of land around any installations in the interior considered important to the defense of the country; providing that in

these zones, the Executive Power may expropriate any property it deems necessary, and control the granting of concessions for development of natural resources, and in some cases property transfers; declaring that property in the security zones should belong only to native Argentines; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 25, 1945.)

176*a*. September 4, 1944. Resolution No. 983, Department of Industry and Commerce, amending Presidential Decree No. 19,059 of July 20, 1944 (see Argentina 143, BULLETIN, February and May 1945) to allow the use of molasses in the manufacture of certain specified products besides alcohol. (Mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

191*b*. November 7, 1944. Presidential Decree

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR 8, 12STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	1Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	2Bulgaria 3Rumania 4Hungary	
Argentina.....	1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43	6 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(7)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	8G-2-12-45	8 2-12-45 14 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic	11-26-42	12-11-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	9 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (10)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	11 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	12 G-2-11-45	12 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(13)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	8 2-14-45	8 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

No. 30,026, fixing new maximum prices for lime throughout the country, to be in force for six months. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, November 1944.)

191c. November 7, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,027, fixing new maximum sales prices for lime bricks in the Federal Capital and suburbs for a period of six months. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, November 1944.)

191d. November 7, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,028, fixing maximum prices for six months for sand discharged at the ports of Buenos Aires, Olivos, and San Fernando, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, November 1944.)

191e. November 7, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,056, authorizing the Department of Industry and Commerce to allow the exportation of radio receiving sets provided they are not equipped with tubes, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, November 1944.)

192. (Correction) November 7, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,301, making the Department of Industry and Commerce responsible for the supervisory functions over firms belonging to foreigners of belligerent non-American countries set forth in Decree No. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 (see 19f₁ above). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, November 1944.)

193b. November 9, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 30,375, authorizing the Argentine Red Cross to export up to 100 tons of first-class granulated sugar for prisoners of war, to the ports and countries which it will specify, authorization effective until July 31, 1945. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, December 1944.)

200a. November 30, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 32,537, prohibiting the exportation of linseed in view of the shortage of mineral fuel oil, for which linseed oil is a substitute. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

202a. December 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 33,213, declaring officially completed the work of the Cement Industry Study Commission created by Presidential Decree No. 6,826 of August 26,

1943 (see Argentina 88, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

202b. December 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 33,666, requiring declarations of stocks, production, importation, purchases, sales, cost and sales prices, and specifications of all thermal, electric, or hydraulic machines, of more than 49 metric horsepower, in whatever condition, with the exception of locomotives belonging to public services, machines now being used in boats, and motor vehicles, such as cars, trucks, and tractors; restricting the transfer of such machines; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

202c. December 18, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 33,682, subjecting the exportation of cross ties to prior permit. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

203a. December 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 34,023, providing that for the purposes of the Penal Code military secrets shall be considered as facts, information, or anything concerning installations connected with the defense of the country, revelation of which may endanger national security; and listing specific kinds of military secrets. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

203b. December 21, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 34,315, applying to a specified firm the provisions of Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see 19f₁ and 192 above), and providing that a delegate of the Executive Power shall be designated coadministrator of the company in question. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

203c. December 26, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 34,662, amplifying Presidential Decree No. 8,470 of September 15, 1943 (see Argentina 92b₂, BULLETIN, May 1944) regarding automobile and truck rationing, to make certain exceptions in the case of the exit from the country of automobiles belonging to members of the diplomatic corps. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

203d. December 28, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 34,935, authorizing the Department of Industry and Commerce to permit exportation of up to 20,000 tons of potatoes. (*Boletín de la Secre-*

taría de Industria y Comercio, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

204a. January 4, 1945. Resolution No. 2, Ministry of the Treasury, providing that the foreign credit based on the exportation of wolfram during the present year be given a preferential rate of exchange. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

204b. January 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 67, putting a specified firm under government supervision as provided in Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see 19f₁ and 192 above). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

204c. January 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 68, putting a specified firm under government supervision as provided in Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see 19f₁ and 192 above). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

204d. January 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 69, putting a specified firm under government supervision as provided in Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see 19f₁ and 192 above). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

207b. January 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 976, putting a specified firm under government supervision as provided in Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see 19f₁ and 192 above). (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

210a. January 22, 1945. General Public Resolution No. 2, Department of Industry and Commerce, creating the Scrap Iron Executive and Allotment Board. (*Boletín de la Secretaría de Industria y Comercio*, Buenos Aires, January 1945.)

223. February 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,657, abolishing the deadline fixed by Presidential Decree No. 1,417 of January 19, 1945 (see Argentina 210, BULLETIN, July 1945) for declarations of stocks of rubber tires and tubes not already declared; providing that the Department of Industry and Commerce shall establish the procedure and time for making such declarations and the method of putting into practice

Decree No. 1,417. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

224. February 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,889, authorizing the Department of Industry and Commerce to acquire from the Swiss Government the title to the lot of sugar referred to in Presidential Decree No. 25,086 of September 19, 1944 (see Argentina 186, BULLETIN, February 1945) and to provide afterwards for its sale. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 8, 1945.)

225. February 22, 1945. Resolution No. 2,717, Department of Industry and Commerce, naming a Committee to study offers presented for supplying the country with the ethyl alcohol referred to in Presidential Decrees Nos. 18,841 and 30,994 of July 19 and November 15, 1944, respectively (see Argentina 142j and 195a, BULLETIN, May 1945), and propose pertinent action. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 8, 1945.)

226. February 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4,080, placing 5,000 quintals of wheat at the disposal of the Argentine Red Cross to be sent to French prisoners of war. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 7, 1945.)

227. March 2, 1945. Resolution No. 3,165, Department of Industry and Commerce, establishing rules for the execution of Presidential Decree No. 32,535 of November 30, 1944 (see Argentina 200, BULLETIN, May 1945), regarding wheat used in milling. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

228. April 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,034, putting specified companies under government supervision as provided in Presidential Decree No. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 (see 19f₁ above). (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

229. April 3, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6,983, clarifying and amending Presidential Decree No. 34,303 of December 21, 1944 (see Argentina 203, BULLETIN, July 1945), regulating the production and consumption of electricity. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

230. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,043, repealing Decree No. 30,026 of November 7, 1944 (see 191b above) and fixing new maximum prices for lime throughout the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

231. April 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,585, fixing quotas for gasoline distribution for the second third of 1945, and making other pro-

visions concerning gasoline rationing. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

232. April 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,825, repealing Executive Decree No. 19,059 of July 20, 1944 (see Argentina 143*a*, BULLETIN, February and May 1945), restricting the use of molasses, and Resolution No. 983 of September 4, 1944 (see 176*a* above), which amended it. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

233. April 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8,007, regulating the organization, duties, and functions of the National Security Zones Commission created by Presidential Decree No. 15,385 of June 13, 1944 (see 130*a* above). (*Boletín Oficial*, April 25, 1945.)

234. April 18, 1945. Resolution No. 5,938, Department of Industry and Commerce, providing for the rationing and distribution of heavy fuel oils and electricity by the Y.P.F. as established by Presidential Decrees Nos. 3,056 of July 22, 1943 and 34,303 of December 21, 1944 (see Argentina 87*e* and 203, BULLETIN, January 1944 and July 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, April 24, 1945.)

235. April 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8,794, fixing maximum prices for sheet iron and steel plate. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 4, 1945.)

236. April 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,024, taking action to end the strike in the meat-packing plants, where the interruption of work is prejudicial to Argentina's contribution to the war effort of the United Nations; requiring the packing plants in question to reinstate immediately all personnel employed as of March 31, 1945, on the same conditions as before; requiring strikers to return to work; providing that if the companies do not pay the wages for the strike period, the Government will pay, reserving the right to claim the money from the companies; providing that within 90 days the Executive Power will decree uniform working standards for the meat-packing industry; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

237. April 28, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,482, fixing maximum prices for charcoal and firewood; repealing Presidential Decrees Nos. 1,028 and 1,029 of June 19, and 1,760 of July 20, 1943 (see Argentina 83*a*, 83*b*, and 87*c*, BULLETIN, December 1943 and January 1944) and the part of Presidential Decree No. 20,263 of July 28, 1944 (see Argentina 151, BULLETIN, January 1945) referring to charcoal; and making

other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 7, 1945.)

238. May 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,427, placing 40,000 tons of wheat at the disposal of the Government of Sweden for distribution among the population of Norway. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 18, 1945.)

239. May 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,336, declaring May 8 a nation-wide holiday in celebration of the triumph of Allied arms and the end of the war in Europe. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 18, 1945.)

240. May 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,010, accepting the invitation of the United Nations Conference on International Organization and naming a delegation to the Conference. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

241. May 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,008, subjecting to prior export permit the critical materials listed in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 29,671 of October 30, 1944 (see Argentina 191*a*, BULLETIN, March, April, and July 1945); providing that issuance of export permits will be contingent on the agreement of the interested party to import first at least twice the weight of the critical materials used in the manufacture of the exports, or some other critical material in quantity considered sufficient by the competent authorities. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

242. May 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,378, repealing the part of Presidential Decree No. 18,840 of July 19, 1944 (see Argentina 142*i*, BULLETIN, May 1945) which established the compensation for producers who sold their 1943-44 crop corn before May 3, 1944 at less than 5.95 pesos per 100 kilos. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 26, 1945.)

243. May 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,724, providing that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs take possession of the buildings and confiscate the files and furniture of the former Embassy and Consulates of Germany in the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

244. May 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,798, correcting errors of transcription in Presidential Decree No. 7,043 of April 4, 1945 (see 230 above). (*Boletín Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

245. May 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,904, including unhulled rice for milling in the list of products accorded rail freight priority by

Presidential Decree No. 10,920 of May 3, 1944 (see Argentina 121*a*, BULLETIN, January and April 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

246. May 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,935, creating the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property, and outlining its duties and jurisdiction. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

247. May 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 11,112, approving the exchange of notes of May 2, 1945, between the Argentine Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the diplomatic representatives of the United States and Brazil accredited in Buenos Aires which effected an agreement with respect to supplying Argentina with rubber (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 196*a* below). (*Boletín Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

171*b*. July 31, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 3, amplifying Decree No. 2 of July 13, 1944 (see Costa Rica 171*a*, BULLETIN, February 1945), which provided for control of the distribution of penicillin. (*La Gaceta*, August 2, 1944.)

187. May 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2, repealing Presidential Decrees Nos. 2 and 3 of July 13 and 31, 1944 (see Costa Rica 171*a*, BULLETIN, February 1945, and 171*b* above), which provided for control of the distribution of penicillin. (*La Gaceta*, May 17, 1945.)

188. May 15, 1945. Bulletin No. 2, Price Administration, fixing maximum prices for electric current in certain cantons, in accordance with Law No. 57 of March 26, 1945 (see Costa Rica 186, BULLETIN, July 1945). (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, May 16, 1945.)

189. May 24, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 2, suspending certain constitutional guarantees for a period of 60 days. (*La Gaceta*, May 26, 1945.)

CUBA

747. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 321, Office of Price Regulation and Supply. (Corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945, p. 9228.)

749*a*. March 9, 1945. Resolution No. 324, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing regulations concerning withdrawal from customs of tallow, impure fats, resins, and caustic soda, supplementing the provisions of Resolution No. 319 of March 9, 1945 (see Cuba 745, BULLETIN,

August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 29, 1945, p. 6344.)

752*a*. March 27, 1945. Supreme Court Decision No. 22, declaring unconstitutional specified provisions of Presidential Decree No. 2631 of August 19, 1944 (see Cuba 644, BULLETIN, November 1944), which provided for 10, 15, and 20 percent increases in wages of workers in commerce, industry, agricultural, and other business activities regulated by labor legislation. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1945, p. 8932.)

756*a*. April 4, 1945. Resolution No. 328, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, canceling existing quotas of gasoline, tractor fuel, gas oil, fuel oil, and other liquid fuels and fixing a period for receiving requests for new quotas. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 10, 1945, p. 7084.)

756*b*. April 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1203, extending throughout the 1945 sugar season the tax exemptions granted the Defense Supplies Corporation and Commodity Credit Corporation by Decree No. 414 of March 2, 1944 (see Cuba 544*a*, BULLETIN, September 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 26, 1945, p. 8289.)

756*c*. April 7, 1945. Resolution No. 329, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for distribution among cattle producers and milk distributors. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 12, 1945, p. 7274.)

756*d*. April 9, 1945. Resolution No. 330, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, declaring tractors, mechanical plows, and harrows to be articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1945, p. 7470.)

756*e*. April 9, 1945. Resolution No. 331, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing rules and regulations regarding the consumption and extraction of edible fats and ratifying the provisions of Resolutions No. 195 of March 14, 1944 and No. 308 of February 23, 1945 (see Cuba 545*b* and 737, BULLETIN, July 1944 and August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 26, 1945, p. 8290.)

757*a*. April 14, 1945. Resolution No. 332, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 271 of November 6, 1944 (see Cuba 675, BULLETIN, February 1945) regarding fertilizers and the raw materials therefor. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1945, p. 8103.)

757*b*. April 18, 1945. Resolution No. 333, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a spe-

cial quota of tires and tubes to meet requirements of public freight trucks and passenger cars. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1945, p. 8103.)

757c. April 18, 1945. Resolution No. 334, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, including coconut oil and soda ash under the provisions of Resolutions Nos. 319 and 324 of March 9, 1945 (see Cuba 745, *BULLETIN*, August 1945, and 749a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1945, p. 8104.)

757d. April 24, 1945. Resolution No. 335, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a special quota of tires and tubes to meet pending requests. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 2, 1945, p. 8611.)

757e. April 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1196, prohibiting before March 29, 1946, the 10 percent increase in rents authorized for March 29, 1945, by the rent-freezing decree (No. 804) of March 28, 1944 (see Cuba 547, *BULLETIN*, July 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 27, 1945, p. 8385.)

757f. April 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1267, repealing specified sections of Decree No. 2631 of August 19, 1944, because of their having been declared unconstitutional (see Cuba 644, *BULLETIN*, November 1944, and 752a above), and maintaining without change the wages in effect on March 31, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1945, p. 8932.)

757g. April 30, 1945. Resolution No. 336, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing maximum prices for corn and corn meal and prescribing regulations governing their control and distribution. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945, p. 9222.)

757h. April 30, 1945. Resolution No. 337, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, establishing control over the distribution of fertilizers and the raw materials for their manufacture. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945, p. 9224.)

757i. April 30, 1945. Resolution No. 338, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, establishing control over the distribution of horseshoe nails. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945, p. 9226.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

167. April 27, 1945. Law No. 885, levying a $\frac{3}{8}$ of 1 percent ad valorem tax on all exports, the proceeds of which will be earmarked during the period May 1, 1945—June 30, 1948 for the

Dominican Republic's contribution to UNRRA (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, *BULLETIN*, February 1944), fixed at \$350,000. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 1, 1945.)

168. May 1, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2638, relaxing economic control measures as applied to Italians by amending previous legislation on the subject (see Dominican Republic 10, 50, 160, and 163, *BULLETIN*, April 1942, March 1943, July and August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 1, 1945.)

169. May 3, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2650, regulating the issuance of permits required for exportation of cattle. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 5, 1945.)

ECUADOR

97a. December 22, 1944. Resolution No. 134, Minister of Economy, authorizing the Central Bank to convert the money in certain dollar accounts, received from the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs for health and public welfare purposes, at the old rate of exchange of 13.70 sucres per dollar, notwithstanding the new exchange rates fixed by Presidential Decree No. 1046 of July 13, 1943 and Executive Order No. 111 of November 18, 1944 (see Ecuador 54 and 93, *BULLETIN*, November 1943, April, May, June 1945); and making other pertinent provisions. (*Registro Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

97b. January 5, 1945. Resolution No. 5, Minister of Economy, providing for payment to dealers of cost plus freight plus one sucre per quintal (100 pounds) for sugar confiscated in accordance with the legislative decree of October 11, 1944, and the legislative resolution of October 19, 1944 (see Ecuador 92 and 92b, *BULLETIN*, March and April 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, February 8, 1945.)

100. February 23, 1945. Resolution No. 20, Minister of Economy, prohibiting all exports of oleaginous seeds produced in the country. (*Registro Oficial*, April 10, 1945.)

101. February 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 283, creating two commissions, with headquarters in Quito and Guayaquil, as dependencies of the Priorities Office of the Foreign Trade and Assistant Foreign Trade Offices, to take charge of the distribution of articles subject to priority and ration control. (*Registro Oficial*, March 19, 1945.)

102. March 2, 1945. Legislative Decree de-

claring null and void all adjudications and transfers of blocked properties, real estate or industrial, made in conformity with Decree No. 854 of June 11, 1943 (see Ecuador 52c, BULLETIN, December 1943), except for transfers made in favor of the State, municipalities, or official agencies; returning all such transferred properties to the jurisdiction of the State; and providing for their future sale or other disposal and for proper indemnification to the persons affected by this measure. (*Registro Oficial*, March 2, 1945.)

103. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 510-a, requiring all flour importers to turn over at cost price to the National Distributing Agency (*Distribuidora Nacional*) 25 percent of all imported flour, to be placed on sale by that Agency at a fair price; adopted as a price control measure. Profits accruing to the National Distributing Agency from the sale of such flour to be invested in the establishment of municipal bakeries. (*Registro Oficial*, April 11, 1945.)

104. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 510-b, amending Decree No. 283 of February 27, 1945 (see 101 above), to provide for two priority commissions under the Assistant Foreign Trade Office, one to handle tire and truck distribution, the other to handle distribution of other articles subject to priority control; and making other provisions concerning the duties and functions of the commissions. (*Registro Oficial*, April 11, 1945.)

105. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 510-e, making the National Distributing Agency the sole agency for marketing stocks of rice produced by the rice processing mills; fixing prices to be paid by the Agency; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Registro Oficial*, April 20, 1945.)

106. April 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 561, fixing prices for specified brands of imported cigarettes. (*Registro Oficial*, April 20, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

66. (Correction) May 28, 1943. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1943.)

104a. March 15, 1945. Executive Decree repealing Executive Decree of February 21, 1945 (see El Salvador 104, BULLETIN, July 1945) which placed the sale and distribution of sugar under control of the Federation of Rural Credit Banks; transferring those functions to the Sugar

Industry Defense Committee and the General Revenue Office; and prohibiting the exportation of sugar until such time as these offices judge domestic needs guaranteed. (*Diario Oficial*, March 22, 1945.)

108. April 16, 1945. Executive Decree amending the Executive Decree of August 8, 1944 (see El Salvador 92, BULLETIN, December 1944) and again reorganizing the Cotton Yarn Rationing Board. (*Diario Oficial*, April 25, 1945.)

109. May 3, 1945. Executive Decree amplifying the Executive Decree of May 11, 1943 (see El Salvador 65, BULLETIN, September 1943) governing the sale of quinine to provide that in special cases the Ministry of Economy may grant licenses to private individuals to import quinine or quinine products; adopted in view of a current quinine shortage. (*Diario Oficial*, May 28, 1945.)

110. May 8, 1945. Decree No. 74, National Constituent Assembly, declaring May 9 a national holiday in celebration of the victory of the United Nations. (*Diario Oficial*, May 10, 1945.)

111. May 17, 1945. Executive Decree repealing the Executive Decree of July 3, 1944 (see El Salvador 88, BULLETIN, November 1944) which ordered government expropriation and economic control of all sodium penicillin in the country. (*Diario Oficial*, May 24, 1945.)

112. May 24, 1945. Decree No. 91, National Constituent Assembly, authorizing the Executive Power to acquire a sufficient quantity of corn and other cereals to fill domestic needs without calling for bids as required by the Procurement Law, and to control the sale of cereals imported in accordance with this decree. (*Diario Oficial*, May 28, 1945.)

GUATEMALA

133a. February 14, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 46, approving Decree No. 53, January 22, 1945, of the Revolutionary Junta (see Guatemala 131, BULLETIN, May 1945), which withdrew the recognition extended by Guatemala in 1936 to the Falangist government of Spain. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 17, 1945.)

136. April 12, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 60, approving Presidential Decree No. 3102 of May 12, 1944 (see Guatemala 107, BULLETIN, September 1944), which restricted for the duration of the war the exportation of certain articles

of foreign manufacture. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 25, 1945.)

136c. April 12, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 68, approving Decree No. 68, February 28, 1945, of the Revolutionary Junta (see Guatemala 134, BULLETIN, June 1945), which fixed new maximum and minimum limits for certain classes of government pensions. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 25, 1945.)

136b. April 19, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 81, approving Presidential Decree No. 3109 of June 2, 1944 (see Guatemala 110, BULLETIN, September 1944), but amending it to change the duty on used rubber tires to 10 percent ad valorem. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 14, 1945.)

138a. April 24, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 88, approving Presidential Decree No. 3129 of July 28, 1944 (see Guatemala 116, BULLETIN, November 1944), which suspended certain portions of the Customs Code for the duration of the war. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 22, 1945.)

141. May 18, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 110, disapproving Presidential Decrees Nos. 3112 and 3132 of June 16 and August 11, 1944 (see Guatemala 113 and 117, BULLETIN, October and December 1944), which exempted Polish and Chinese nationals from certain commercial restrictions. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 28, 1945.)

142. May 22, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 114, amending Presidential Decrees Nos. 3134 and 3138 of August 14 and 23, 1944, and Legislative Decrees Nos. 2811 and 2812 of August 24 and September 5, 1944 (see Guatemala 118, 118a, 119, and 120, BULLETIN, December 1944 and January 1945), to simplify procedures for expropriating the property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 24, 1945.)

143. May 31, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 124, approving Presidential Decree No. 3153 of October 6, 1944 (see Guatemala 121, BULLETIN, January 1945), which clarified the provisions of Presidential Decrees Nos. 3134 and 3138 (see Guatemala 118 and 118a, BULLETIN, December 1944 and January 1945) in regard to procedure for expropriating the property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 7, 1945.)

HAITI

98c. August 19, 1944. Executive Decree No. 418, authorizing the sale by the State of the properties of a specified German firm, in accordance with the decrees of February 25, 1944 and March 28, 1944 (see Haiti 87 and 92, BULLETIN, July and August 1944). (*Le Moniteur*, August 24, 1944.)

98d. August 21, 1944. Executive Decree No. 416, authorizing the Department of Commerce and National Economy to regulate the sale of tires and tubes, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Le Moniteur*, August 21, 1944.)

98e. August 21, 1944. Communiqué, Department of Commerce and National Economy, prescribing regulations governing the sale of tires and tubes. (*Le Moniteur*, August 21, 1944.)

HONDURAS

50. May 8, 1945. Executive Decree No. 74, declaring May 8, 1945, Victory Day and taking appropriate measures for its celebration. (*La Gaceta*, May 15, 1945.)

MEXICO

236i. February 18, 1944. Decree declaring of public interest the manufacture, sale, importation, transportation, and use of penicillin, and creating a National Regulating Commission for control of the product. (*Diario Oficial*, March 20, 1944.)

250i. June 21, 1944. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for specified sugar mills in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1944.)

288i. February 15, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, June 18, 1945.)

296a. April 6, 1945. Decree suspending during the war emergency the effects of certain articles of the Regulations for the Mexico City slaughterhouse, in order to facilitate meat supply and distribution. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1945.)

297a. April 11, 1945. Presidential order creating a Committee for the Development of National Cacao Production (*Comité para el Fomento de la*

Producción Nacional de Cacao) and outlining its duties and functions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

298a. April 18, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, amending the resolution of June 21, 1944 (see 250₁ above) regarding the supply zone for certain sugar mills. (*Diario Oficial*, May 22, 1945.)

300. May 11, 1945. Decree repealing the decree of February 18, 1944 (see 236₁ above), with regard to control of penicillin. (*Diario Oficial*, June 5, 1945.)

301. May 16, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

302. June 13, 1945. Circular No. 309-4-52, Treasury Department, adding certain types of lumber to the list of articles subject to import restrictions, in accordance with the decree of April 15, 1944 (see Mexico 243a, BULLETIN, August 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

303. June 21, 1945. Decree supplementing Article 4, Section II, of the Regulations of the general provisions relative to the suspension of constitutional guarantees, with particular regard to political meetings organized for the purpose of naming candidates for federal office. (See Mexico 43, BULLETIN, September 1942.) (*Diario Oficial*, June 23, 1945.)

PANAMA

124. April 20, 1945. Decree No. 62, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, amending Decree No. 58 of December 12, 1944 (see Panama 120, BULLETIN, April 1945), and fixing new prices for fish in Chepigana District. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 28, 1945.)

125. May 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 585, repealing Decree No. 252 of August 26, 1942, which prohibited exportation of coconuts and copra (see Panama 31, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945.)

126. May 18, 1945. Decree No. 63, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, fixing maximum retail prices for barbed wire throughout the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 23, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

79. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 26, 1945.)

80. March 26, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7896, suspending all payments or transfers of funds of German and Japanese subjects. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 27, 1945.)

81. March 27, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7918, extending, because of the present economic situation, the time period fixed by previous legislation for the payment of certain business license and other fees. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 27, 1945.)

82. April 10, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8054, authorizing the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay to acquire on the Government's account surpluses of the agricultural products protected by official minimum price regulations and to negotiate with the Bank of Paraguay the loans necessary to carry out this procedure, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1945.)

83. April 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8087, fixing internment zones for German and Japanese subjects. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1945.)

84. April 17, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8275, waiving certain import duties on gasogenes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

85. April 23, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8385, reestablishing telecommunication services with the countries and territories liberated from the Axis. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1945.)

PERU

147a. January 12, 1945. Supreme Resolution, Ministry of Justice and Labor, increasing wages of workers in the printing industry in the provinces of Lima and Callao. (Mentioned in *El Peruano*, May 10, 1945.)

149a. April 26, 1945. Supreme Decree increasing wages of textile workers in provinces other than Lima, Callao, and Huancayo, retroactive to January 15, 1945. (*El Peruano*, May 10, 1945.)

149b. April 26, 1945. Supreme Resolution, Ministry of Justice and Labor, increasing wages of workers in the printing industry in provinces not included in the provisions of the Supreme Resolution of January 12, 1945 (see 147a above), in the proportion established in that resolution. (*El Peruano*, May 10, 1945.)

URUGUAY

259*a*. March 13, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 106/945, amplifying the provisions of the decree of January 17, 1945 regarding the distribution and sale of the 1944-45 wheat crop (see Uruguay 247, BULLETIN, June 1945), and authorizing the Bank of the Republic to handle imports of wheat allowed by that decree. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1945.)

261*a*. March 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1340/944, distributing among packing plants, for the duration of the war, export quotas of frozen mutton for shipment to the United Kingdom. (*Diario Oficial*, April 7, 1945.)

263. April 3, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 1651/945, authorizing the Office of Industries to adopt pertinent measures regarding the manufacture of tires for imported omnibus and truck chassis. (*Diario Oficial*, April 7, 1945.)

264. April 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 37/945, providing for meeting a quota of 15,000 tons of frozen meat to be shipped under contract to the United Kingdom. (*Diario Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

265. April 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 770/945, fixing maximum prices for specified types of food pastes. (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

266. April 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2785/943, fixing maximum prices for various types of rice. (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

267. May 11, 1945. Presidential Decree authorizing the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to receive and take into custody the files and effects of the German Legation and Consulates in Uruguay. (*Diario Oficial*, May 26, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

212. May 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 115, declaring May 8, 1945, a national holiday to celebrate the victory of the United Nations in Europe, and making other appropriate provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

183*c*. April 5, 1945. Military service agreement between the Governments of Ecuador and the United States. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

196*a*. May 2, 1945. Exchange of notes be-

tween representatives of the Governments of Argentina, Brazil, and the United States, constituting an agreement whereby the latter two nations will supply to the former 3,000 tires and tubes and 1,000 metric tons of synthetic rubber for the production and rebuilding of tires and tubes, and making other pertinent provisions. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, May 3, 1945; also mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, Argentina, June 2, 1945.)

201*a*. May 11, 1945. Military service agreement between the Governments of the United States and Venezuela. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

207*a*. June 1, 1945. Adherence by the Government of Brazil to the Agreement on Principles Having Reference to the Continuance of Coordinated Control of Merchant Shipping, signed at London by certain of the United Nations on August 5, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 155, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

210*a*. June 11, 1945. Military service agreement between the Governments of Chile and the United States. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

210*b*. June 12, 1945. Military service agreement between the Governments of Peru and the United States. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

213. June 26, 1945. Statute of the International Court of Justice, adopted at San Francisco by the representatives of the Governments of the United Nations. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 24, 1945.)

214. June 26, 1945. Interim arrangements concluded by the Governments represented at the United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco, establishing a Preparatory Commission of the United Nations for the purpose of making provisional arrangements for the first sessions of the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, and the Trusteeship Council, for the establishment of the Secretariat, and for the convening of the International Court of Justice. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, June 24, 1945.)

215. July 6, 1945. Ratification by Nicaragua of the Charter of the United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 8, 1945.)

Pan American News

Message of the President of Venezuela

On April 21, 1945, President Isaias Medina Angarita of Venezuela delivered his annual message to Congress, giving an account of the fourth year of his administration.

In discussing Venezuela's foreign policy, he spoke of the country's adherence to the Declaration by the United Nations on February 20, 1945, of its ever increasing rapprochement with its sister republics, and of its active participation in the international and inter-American conferences of the last year.

Turning to domestic policy, he told of the measures the Government has taken to meet the problems of national economy in the present emergency. In spite of the marked decrease in some of its principal sources of revenue, the Government refused to reduce the budget. Thanks to the happy results of the petroleum reform and the fairer distribution of the tax burden, it was able to maintain a high level of public expenditures and come out with a favorable balance in the Treasury. The Treasury receipts in 1944 amounted to more than 541,000,000 bolívares, and expenditures reached the unprecedented figure of 409,000,000 bolívares. The balance on April 15 was 238,499,000 bolívares. The public debt of 24,952,077 bolívares represents barely 10 percent of present funds on hand. The situation of the National Treasury is decidedly promising.

The tendency towards higher prices was avoided in great measure because of the direct control exercised by government agencies. At the end of 1944, the increase over prices of the preceding year was less than 2 percent. The direct influence of increased

monetary circulation on price levels was checked by the treasury's action in freezing in its reserve funds a good part of the increased revenues. Thanks to this policy, the margin of difference in the buying power of the bolívar and other currency has been slowly but surely diminishing, until the bolívar is now prepared to meet with stability and ease the necessary deflationary readjustment of the postwar period.

Based on the country's solid financial position, the proposed budget for the fiscal year 1945-46 amounted in round figures to 494,000,000 bolívares. The constitutional allowance for local governments was 102,622,000 bolívares, almost twice as much as in the previous budget.

The effort to stimulate agricultural and livestock economic activities was having satisfactory results, the Chief Executive reported. During the year 1944 the Agricultural and Livestock Bank made 12,405 loans, totaling 34,000,000 bolívares. Some 58,070 acres of cotton were cultivated, with a yield estimated at 4,600 tons. The potato production practically supplied the national demand. The sesame crop exceeded 3,000 tons. The last rice crop was between 62 and 66 million pounds. The fish catch of 27,000 tons represented an increase of 28 percent over last year's. The production of the fish canneries increased 94 percent. This year's rubber production reached 269 tons as against 81 the preceding year. The value of agricultural and livestock products destined for the West Indies amounted to 20,000,000 bolívares.

The State has turned over a vast property for use in a project of technical development of the cattle industry. More than a hundred bulls for breeding were received from

the United States for this farm, and the first lot of machinery and implements needed for the project is expected soon. For improvement of the cattle industry in general, 1,563 animals were imported for breeding.

The Executive Power, President Medina continued, has made a special effort to increase free allotment of idle land to small farmers eligible for the benefits of the Public Lands Law. Furthermore, a committee named by the Government drafted an agrarian reform law based on principles of social justice and economic progress. The draft was submitted to the consideration of a larger committee of qualified representatives of diverse rural activities, and published in the newspapers in order to get a greater number of comments. Only after examination of all comments offered will the definitive bill be presented to the consideration of Congress.

The total oil production in 1944 was approximately 257,454,326 barrels, an increase of 43 percent over the preceding year, and the greatest production in the country's history.

After the 1943 petroleum reform there was a halt in wildcatting activities and development of new zones in the country, along with abandonment of some concessions. This was accompanied by intensified production, made necessary by the war, in the fields already developed. In order to encourage discovery and development of new producing areas, the Government called on the interested companies to present lists of concessions they wanted and the conditions they were prepared to offer, and proceeded to work out a plan which would harmonize the interests of the companies which already had concessions, permit new enterprises to establish themselves in Venezuela, and allow a rational development of the industry in accordance with the interests of the nation.

By the middle of 1944 all operations of conversion and adaptation of concessions under the new law were completed. The total area of the concessions converted and adapted amounts to approximately 13,507,603 acres. The taxes on wildcatting, development, etc., paid because of converted concessions, brought 75,601,082 bolívares into the National Treasury (this sum was entered partly in 1943 and partly in 1944).

In accordance with the new program, the revenues in cash from the new concessions for the initial duties of development and wildcatting alone will amount to 209,000,000 bolívares, in round numbers, of which it is estimated that 127,000,000 will already have come into the Treasury by the middle of 1946.

Agreements were signed with the Sinclair interests and with the Mene Grande Oil Co. by which each will install a refinery in the country, with a minimum capacity of 34,965 and 20,034 barrels per day, respectively. The total capacity of these refineries, added to the capacities of those that the Shell interests and the Creole Petroleum Corporation have agreed to install, will be 135,000 barrels per day, which will raise to 237,000 barrels per day the total minimum capacity of refineries in Venezuela.

During the fiscal year concessions were granted as follows: for wildcatting and development, around 9,300,000 acres; national reserves, 1,173,000 acres; and development, 538,000 acres.

Thanks to the government's economic policy, the President declared, business had prospered; private taxable incomes reached in 1944 the large sum of more than 500,000,000 bolívares; real property is bringing the highest prices in the nation's history; commercial failures have been insignificant in number and importance; the mean value of stocks quoted on the Venezuelan market has risen 62 percent over the

1939 level; during the year 34 buildings of more than three stories and 76 of three stories were erected in the city of Caracas; the number of persons employed and the salaries and wages they receive are the highest the country has ever known.

President Medina then discussed the Government's efforts to give the Venezuelan people the benefits of education, health, economic security, and social justice.

In the course of 1944 seven new elementary schools were established in the buildings constructed for them, two in Caracas, and one each in Maiquetía, San Juan de los Morros, Maracay, Cumaná (in conjunction with the Normal School there), and San Antonio del Táchira. More than 4,000 children are now receiving primary instruction in these schools. Six new high schools, two in Caracas, and one each in Cumaná, Mérida, Valencia, and Barquisimeto, are under construction or soon to be built. The notable increase in secondary education is clearly seen in student registrations, which have risen from 6,443 in 1940 to 11,590 in 1944. The edifice housing the Normal School in Caracas, with its own primary school for 1,000 students, was completed.

The Teachers' Salary Law, under which the 3,544 teachers serving in the federal schools were carefully classified, brought the benefits of a 26 percent raise in pay to the teaching personnel.

Demonstrating its deep interest in the progress of the universities, the Government carried out a reorganization of the Schools of Engineering, both in the Central University and in Los Andes (Mérida); and substantial changes were introduced in the Schools of Dentistry and Pharmacy. Plans are being prepared for similar changes in the Schools of Medicine and Law. An important part of these reorganization projects is the University City now being constructed in Caracas, and the Polytechnical Agricul-

tural Institute in Aragua. Special mention should also be made of the student welfare organizations of both universities.

In the field of social welfare, the Government took the greatest step forward by putting into effect the compulsory social security law of July 24, 1940, with the creation of the Social Security Institute and the functioning of the first Regional Fund in the Federal District and the municipalities of Petare and Chacao. This social security measure is designed to remedy the ills which make assistance necessary, since it collects its funds from the possible beneficiaries, from their employers, and from the State; and when the necessity arises, the beneficiary finds immediate relief in the financial, medical, sanitary, and social resources of the Institute. Fifty percent of the population in the territory to which this Fund applies are receiving the benefits of the insurance; and of this number, fifty percent were formerly receiving medical assistance in public establishments as indigents.

In his visit to Maracaibo, President Medina said, he was able to observe the magnificent conditions and organization of the Surgical and Maternity Hospital, a model for the establishments which the Government is creating or helping to create elsewhere. Three hundred thousand bolívares were contributed by the Government for equipment for the Anti-Tubercular Sanatorium in Zulia. Two new hospitals for tubercular patients were installed, and other facilities for treatment were increased. The sale of Christmas seals on a national scale brought wider popular participation in the campaign against tuberculosis. The new leper colony, now under construction, will give a great impetus to the fight against leprosy. The campaign to stamp out malaria has been intensified, with anti-malarial engineering projects completed in 25 towns; and topographical studies are under way pre-

liminary to carrying out similar projects in 10 more towns. There were more vaccinations for smallpox and typhus this year than ever before, and more for diphtheria than in any previous year except 1941. The campaign against parasitic diseases has been unrelenting.

Government maternity and child services gave assistance in the case of one fifth of all the babies born in the country in 1944.

The President cited as one of the measures taken during the year to protect labor the decree forbidding night work in bakeries in the Federal District and the Sucre District of Miranda.

Labor conflicts in the oil fields were of especial concern to the Government, since whatever affects the petroleum industry affects the socio-economic interests of the entire country, as well as Venezuela's co-operation with the other United Nations. After a careful study of the situation, wages of employees in permanent oil fields and ports of embarkation which were under a certain level were raised 2 bolívars a day; and the companies were instructed to take steps to diversify the provisions sold in the commissaries.

The total amount spent on public works in the past year was 124,849,278 bolívars, and an average of 15,000 laborers was kept at work on them, receiving an average of 9.42 bolívars per day. Only a scarcity of materials made the completion of some of the projects of the public works plan impossible.

During the year, 170 miles of highway were constructed, the sections from Maracaibo to Machiques, from Maturín-Cumaná to the state boundary of Sucre, and from Ciudad Bolívar to Upata having been completed. The upkeep work on highways covered a total length of 3,073 miles.

At La Guaira construction was begun on new docks which will allow the landing and

operation of seven ships at once. Merchandise will be adequately stored in the cement storehouse whose construction is now being completed. Active construction work is proceeding on the new dock in the port of Cumaná.

The Suata irrigation system in Aragua was completed this year, and numerous other irrigation projects are in various stages of planning and construction. Hydraulic and sanitary works were severely handicapped by the scarcity of pipes and tubing. Nevertheless, work was begun on a number of aqueducts, and on some dams and sewer systems.

President Medina closed his speech urging Congress to give final ratification to the constitutional reforms which are summarized in the news note on amendments to the Venezuelan Constitution in this issue.—E. P. Da S.

Message of the President of Nicaragua

President Anastasio Somoza delivered his seventh annual message to the Congress of Nicaragua at its opening session on April 15, 1945, laying special stress on Nicaragua's continued support of the United Nations. He outlined Nicaragua's share in the recent Inter-American Conference on the Problems of War and Peace at Mexico City, and noted that in December 1944 his administration had opened diplomatic and consular relations with Russia, to be carried on for the present through representatives of the United States.

Nicaragua ended the year 1944 with a surplus of nearly eight million córdobas; this was accomplished in addition to various public works, provision of funds for Nicaragua's share in the Pan American High-

ing an increase of 29 percent over the 1943 figure.

Foodstuffs, the largest classification among the country's imports, rose from 1,055,780,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 1,687,385,000 cruzeiros in 1944. The largest item in this group was wheat, valued at 1,097,323,000 cruzeiros, compared with 772,904,000 in 1943. Wheat flour imports were also much higher, having risen from 29,283,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 117,432,000 in 1944.

Manufactured iron and steel products, including tin plate, piping, wire, rails and spikes, and other items ranked next, totaling 551,697,000 cruzeiros against 418,388,000 in 1943. Imports of iron and steel bars, mesh, sheets, plates, strips, and pigs more than trebled in 1944, totaling 333,800,000 cruzeiros as compared with 105,161,000 in the previous year.

Imports of electrical apparatus, motors, generators, and road and other machines, increased as a group from 520,924,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 987,748,000 in 1944. Imports of scientific instruments and accessories increased over 69 percent; imports of cutlery, tools, and utensils more than trebled; and imports of sewing machines and typewriters doubled. The total import value of all these instruments, tools, and apparatus was 190,287,000 cruzeiros, against 102,925,000 in 1943.

Imports of automobiles of all kinds rose from 36,532,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 42,996,000 in 1944, while automobile accessories increased even more, from 27,196,000 cruzeiros to 61,427,000 cruzeiros in 1944.

Newsprint and other types of paper from abroad were valued at 333,800,000 cruzeiros, an increase of 217 percent over the previous year's total of 105,161,000 cruzeiros. Cellulose acetate and cellulose, used in paper manufacture, rose from 118,539,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 165,232,000 in 1944. Imports of pharmaceutical products

more than doubled in 1944, rising from 58,084,000 cruzeiros in 1943 to 123,577,000 cruzeiros in 1944.

The movement of Brazilian exports to Europe increased in tonnage, although in relation to total Brazilian exports the percentage that went to Europe remained at about the previous year's level, i.e., 20 percent. Brazil had three markets in Europe in 1944: England, which took 12.6 percent of Brazil's exports, and Spain and Sweden. The American Republics provided 93 percent of Brazil's total imports in 1944 and took 76 percent of the nation's exports. The United States was both the largest buyer of Brazilian goods and the greatest provider of Brazil's imports, the figures being 53 percent and 61 percent, respectively. Brazil's trade balance with the United States at the end of 1944 was approximately 798,000,000 cruzeiros. Brazilian purchases from the United States included, among other items, large amounts of foodstuffs, electrical apparatus, and iron and steel products.

In South America, Argentina was Brazil's major market. That nation continued to supply Brazil with wheat and was a large buyer of Brazilian cotton textiles. Altogether, 13 percent of Brazil's exports went to Argentina and the latter provided 21 percent of Brazil's total imports, which left Brazil with a negative trade balance with Argentina of 225,000,000 cruzeiros.

Increased coffee import quotas

The Inter-American Coffee Board, meeting in Washington on May 29, 1945, passed a resolution increasing coffee import quotas for the United States market to 300 percent of the basic quota for the period beginning June 1, 1945 and extending to the end of the quota year, September 30, 1945. This action was taken, according to the resolution, because there were indications that the quan-

tity of coffee that producing countries would probably supply in accordance with the then existing quota might be insufficient to meet demands of the United States Armed Forces and civilian population and, in view of the uncertainty of maritime transportation for some of the coffee-producing areas during the redeployment of troops to the Pacific,

it was considered desirable to administer the provisions of the Inter-American Coffee Agreement with as much elasticity as possible, in order that available maritime shipping space might be utilized to its maximum capacity.

The following table gives figures for the basic and amended quotas:

*United States Coffee Import Quotas
as fixed by the Inter-American Coffee Board*

(Bags of 60 kilos or 132.276 pounds)

Signatory countries	Basic quota	Amended quota prior to June 1, 1945	Amended quota effective June 1, 1945
Brazil	9,300,000	13,110,489	17,793,318
Colombia	3,150,000	¹ 4,437,607	¹ 6,023,727
Costa Rica	200,000	281,946	382,652
Cuba	80,000	112,778	153,061
Dominican Republic	120,000	169,168	229,591
Ecuador	150,000	211,459	286,989
El Salvador	600,000	845,838	1,147,956
Guatemala	535,000	754,206	1,023,594
Haiti	275,000	387,676	526,147
Honduras	20,000	28,195	38,265
Mexico	475,000	669,622	908,799
Nicaragua	195,000	274,897	373,086
Peru	25,000	35,243	47,831
Venezuela	420,000	592,087	803,569
Total, signatory countries	12,545,000	21,911,211	29,738,585
Non-signatory countries	355,000	500,454	679,207
Total, all countries	15,900,000	22,411,665	30,417,792

¹ In accordance with Article IV of the Inter-American Coffee Agreement an adjustment was made for an excess of 3,042 bags in the total imports from Colombia during the quota year 1943-44.

In reality, however, the quota that went into effect on June 1, 1945, will be equivalent to 191.326 percent of the basic quota for the year, because of the fact that only 122 days of the quota year remain in which the increase will operate.

Paraguayan industrial activity in 1944

The year 1944 was marked by a general increase of industrial activity in Paraguay, as shown by index figures covering all the ma-

jor industries, compiled by the Republic's General Office of Statistics and Census.

With the year 1937 taken as the basic index of 100, the figures indicate that the over-all index of wages paid to industrial workers in 1944 was 169.9, an increase of 12.8 percent over the preceding year, while the general index of the number of workers employed was 131.1, an increase of 4 percent over 1943. For the number of man hours, with the year 1943 taken as the basis of 100, the increase in 1944 was 3.4 percent.

The industries covered by the index figures include foodstuffs, beverages, and to-

bacco; leather and its manufactures; metals and their manufactures, excluding machinery; stone, clay, etc., and their manufactures, exclusive of glass and chinaware; textiles and their manufactures; petroleum, coal, and byproducts; paper, cardboard, and their manufactures; machinery and vehicles; chemicals, pharmaceuticals, oils, and paints; and rubber and its manufactures.

Haitian Commercial Code

On April 25, 1945, Haiti's revised Commercial Code went into effect. It went into the statute books as Decree-Law No. 484, approved December 23, 1944, and published in *Le Moniteur*, the country's official paper, on January 25, 1945.

The commercial code which the new one supersedes was promulgated on March 28, 1826. While many amendments had been made during the past century, the old code had not kept pace with modern commercial needs and practices and with changes in contemporary commercial law. In 1910, the well-known Haitian jurist, Louis Borno, issued an annotated edition of the Code, with all amendments up to that time. His annotations brought to light the many insufficiencies, errors, and faults of the Code as of that date, and his notes and many suggestions, even though made so long ago, were of immeasurable use to the formulators of the revised Code that has just gone into effect. The Haitian Chamber of Commerce, the Bank of the Republic, and the branch of the Royal Bank of Canada in Haiti also made valuable suggestions for amendments.

The revisions of the Code cover a wide range of subjects, such as maritime law; stock companies; business failures and bankruptcies; letters of exchange, bills payable, checks, and prescriptions; the sale of merchandise and recoveries; rights of women

in business enterprises and transactions; and court procedures in commercial law cases.

Amendments to the Venezuelan Constitution

A significant group of amendments has been added this year to the Venezuelan Constitution. Ratified first by the National Legislature and then by the legislative assemblies of the various states, the amendments were given final approval by Congress on April 23 and signed by the President and his cabinet on May 5.

The major changes made were in the suffrage, the election of the Chamber of Deputies, the powers of the chief executive, and the delegation of judicial power.

In the constitution as now amended, Venezuelan women who are 21, literate, and have not forfeited their civil or political rights through criminal proceedings have the right to vote in the election of municipal councils, together with the right to hold office in these councils. They have also gained the right to hold any appointive public office.

Democratization of the lower house is the aim of the amendment in the manner of electing national deputies. Formerly they were elected by assemblies of the municipalities of each state. Now they will be elected in the various states by direct vote, in conformity with federal legislation on elections.

The constitution previously had no provision for a presidential veto. The new amendments allow the president, when he objects to all or part of a bill, to return it with his objections to the house of its origin within the first ten days after receiving a copy of it. Congress may then decide to accept his veto, or to pass the bill over it. In case of disagreement between the two houses, the bill will be voted on in joint session, its passage requiring a two-thirds

majority of the members present. In case the president objects to a bill on grounds of unconstitutionality, and Congress passes it notwithstanding, the president can put it before the Supreme Court for a decision within ten days.

Another set of amendments allows the president, when so authorized by Congress, temporarily to exercise specified extraordinary powers to protect the economic and financial life of the nation.

A radical reorganization of the judicial power, bringing it all under a national system, is projected in further constitutional amendments. The section giving the states authority to administer justice through their courts in all civil, commercial, and penal proceedings except those reserved by the constitution to the federal judges has been deleted. According to a temporary provision, state, Federal District, and federal territory courts will continue to function in accordance with their respective laws until the law is promulgated which reorganizes the judicial power of the republic and the new judicial officers have assumed their functions.

An important change has also been made in the section guaranteeing freedom of thought, consisting in the deletion of two paragraphs declaring that those proclaiming, propagating, or putting into practice communist or anarchist doctrines will be considered traitors to the nation and giving the president the power to deny entrance into the country, or deport any individuals affiliated with either of those doctrines whose presence may be considered dangerous to public order.

Paid vacations in Argentina

Recent legislation in Argentina assures a vacation with pay to every person working in the employ of another.

In order to be eligible for this holiday the employee must have worked at least half the working days during the year. For those with less than five years of service the minimum annual vacation period will be ten days; after five years' service, an employee is entitled to two weeks of paid vacation a year.

Employers are to grant these holidays each year between October 1 and the following May 30, unless the special nature of the work justifies granting them during some other period of the year. Both the employee and the authorities in charge of enforcing this decree must be notified in writing at least two weeks in advance of the date on which the vacation will begin. And the employee will have the right to receive his salary before starting on his vacation.

The provisions of this decree in no way modify any more favorable arrangement an employee may already be enjoying.

Employees of national, provincial, and municipal institutions and those in domestic service are excluded from the benefits of this legislation.

We see by the papers that—

- President Truman has in his White House office pictures of Simon Bolívar and George Washington. They hang on either side of the painting of the historic American frigate *Constitution*. The painting of Bolívar was a gift from *Venezuela* in 1941. It is a copy of the original in Caracas by Tito Salas, and the President understands it is by the same artist. The three pictures have been placed on the back wall so that the President can see them readily as he looks up from his desk.
- A tunnel through the Andes is to connect the *Argentine* and *Chilean* sections of the Pan American Highway. A mixed commission of engineers has been appointed by the

two governments to study the project. The tunnel as planned will be $17\frac{7}{8}$ miles in length, running from Juncal on the Chilean side to Las Vacas in Argentina. It will be used for the Transandine Railway as well.

- The Central Bank of *Bolivia* grants unrestricted foreign credit both to dealers and individuals for the acquisition of books from abroad.

- The state of São Paulo, Brazil, expects to build 2,000 miles of new highways and improve 4,000 miles of existing roads in the next five years.

- *Peru* has recently begun to export petroleum derivatives to *Brazil* via the Amazon river system. The Compañía de Petróleo Ganzo Azul Ltda. is working the oil fields at Agua Caliente, on the Pachitea River (a tributary of the Uycali) and has its own refinery there. It has now produced petroleum and derivatives in sufficient quantities to supply the lighting, refrigerating, and fueling needs of the Peruvian Amazon region and to ship a surplus of 20,000 gallons of Diesel oil, 41,182 gallons of kerosene, and 84,000 gallons of gasoline to Brazil.

- Three weekly all-cargo flights from Miami to Central and South America by Pan American Airways were begun early in July. Miami-to-Rio de Janeiro service, with 12 intermediate stops, leaves Miami once a week, starting Tuesday, July 6. The other flights go to La Guaira, Venezuela, and to Barranquilla, Colombia.

- Twenty practicing *Latin American* engineers and construction men are to receive a year's special training in the *United States* beginning in 1946, in an expanded program of the American Road Builders' Association. Training will consist of study and practical experience with the objective of familiarizing the trainees with American construction methods, equipment, materials and specifications.

For more than fifteen years, the American Road Builders' Association through its Pan American Division, of which José Rivera of Mexico is secretary, has sponsored scholarships for the training of Latin American highway engineers in the United States. This training consisted of placing these engineers with state highway departments, manufacturing plants, contractors, colleges and the federal government, according to the aptitude and future plans of the individual. Today, without exception, these men are holding responsible positions in their own countries.

- Almost 100 schools were constructed in the Federal District of Mexico in 1940-44.

- As a gesture of friendship and good will toward neighboring nations, the Government of *Ecuador* recently established scholarships at the Eloy Alfaro Military School for cadets from *Colombia*, *Bolivia*, *Panama*, *Venezuela*, and *Chile*.

- The Latin American fellowship of the American Association of University Women, awarded annually since 1917, was given this year to Señora Yolanda Hamuy de Nassar, head of the laboratory of bio-chemistry of the School of Pharmacy and Chemistry at the University of Chile, at Santiago. She is now studying at Columbia University. The South Bend Branch of the Association has also granted a Latin American fellowship, the recipient of which is Dr. Emma Moser Mateos of the Institute of Habana, who will pursue her studies of economic geography in the United States.

- It is reported that *Lincoln Portrait*, by Aaron Copland, was warmly received on its first hearing in *Buenos Aires* last July. It was played at the opening symphony concert of the season, under the baton of Juan José Castro. It will be recalled that the Argentine capital has the largest opera house in this hemisphere.

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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901-2; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely avail-

able to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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NEW STEEL PLANT AT VOLTA REDONDA, BRAZIL

National industries in Latin America are being created and expanded through a fuller utilization of natural resources.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 10



OCTOBER, 1945

Industrialization in Latin America

J. RAFAEL OREAMUNO

Vice Chairman, Inter-American Development Commission

INDUSTRIAL aspirations in the Latin American republics have quickened in recent years. Twenty-five years of increasing inter-American economic relations have greatly encouraged the idea of creating and expanding national industries through a fuller utilization of natural resources, and this eagerness for industrialization has evolved into an inter-American policy endorsed by both business and government. This policy is guided by a determined effort to utilize natural resources for economic advancement as the means of permanently raising living standards.

The basis of this economic advancement in Latin America will be further industrialization, which will be accompanied on a

The Pan American Union celebrated on September 1 the twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. L. S. Rowe as Director General. During these years the American republics have together made great progress, spiritually and materially. In honor of the Director General, the BULLETIN is publishing a series of papers on inter-American relations, 1920-1945, of which this is the second.

large scale by projects for development of transportation facilities, public works, hydro-electric power, mining and petroleum, irrigation, and modernization of agriculture. These many and complex development programs will find encouragement and effective assistance through the growing spirit of inter-American cooperation which has asserted itself in many practical ways in recent years, particularly during the war period.

The eminent Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, has not only been a thoughtful witness to the practical achievements of this significant period in the economic history of the Latin American Republics, but has also acted as an enthusiastic participant and wise counselor in many aspects of these important developments.

Although considerable progress is being made in some of the larger countries, such as Argentina, Mexico, Brazil, and Chile and

to a lesser extent in Venezuela, Colombia, and Cuba, industry in Latin America may generally be considered as still in the early stages of development. The major part of manufacturing activity is in the light industries category, devoted primarily to supplying the domestic markets with the most urgent needs of food, clothing, and shelter, and to assembling imported parts. For the most part, these countries have not sufficiently developed their industries to enable them to enter the world export market, although some of them have begun to export certain manufactured articles, particularly textiles, in increasingly larger amounts.

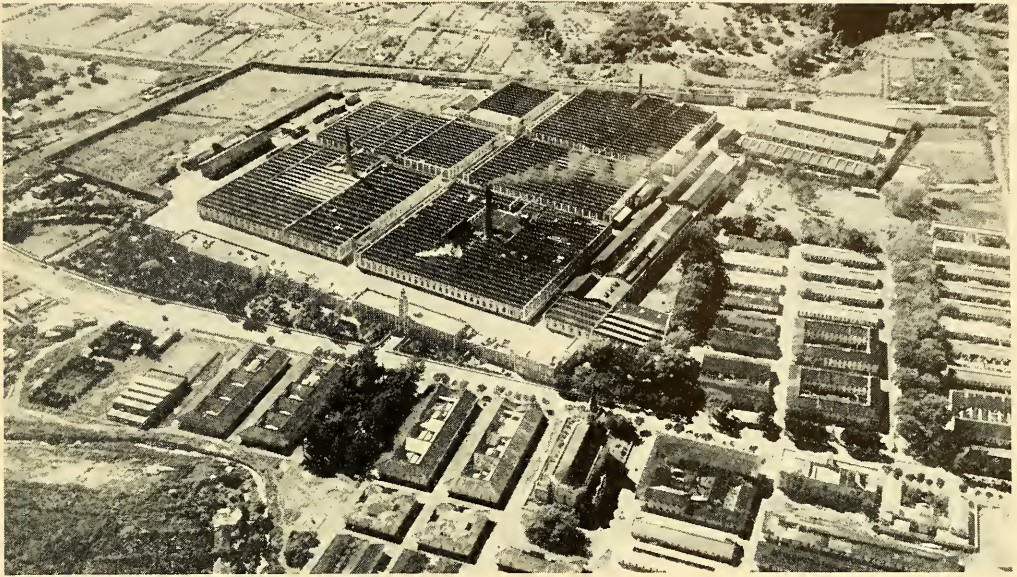
That progress in industrialization was particularly important during the period from World War I to World War II. While Latin America, to some degree, has been caught in the world trend toward manufacturing, its industrialization has been stimulated especially by conditions arising out of the two wars and out of the economic depression of the 1930's. These trying periods emphasized the difficulties and inconveniences of these countries' depending too greatly upon distant foreign markets in which to sell their products and supply their needs, and placed increasing emphasis upon the development of more balanced internal economies as well as upon expansion of inter-American trade.

During the wars, the lack of available shipping facilities, the closing of many foreign markets, and the curtailment of imports, as a result of the military production program in the leading manufacturing countries, forced many of these Latin American republics to produce a large number of articles of consumption previously imported. With the exception of some projects relating to war activity, most of the new manufactured articles were based upon domestic resources and were not dependent to any large

extent upon foreign equipment. The depression of the 1930's again emphasized to these countries the necessity of developing more diversified economies. Dislocation of world trade, reduced incomes from exports, shortage of foreign exchange, and curtailed imports, with certain protective and other measures that followed, stimulated domestic industries.

At the outbreak of the first war, modern factory manufacturing already had been established in some Latin American countries, the movement having begun during the last twenty years of the past century. This included, for example, plants producing such products as textiles, leather, shoes, hats, canned fruits and vegetables, iron articles, beer, printing and wrapping paper, beef extract, sugar, flour, furniture, and many others. Meat refrigeration had been started in Argentina, and iron and steel works had been established in Mexico at the beginning of the century.

The first war, which brought with it higher prices for articles in short supply, greatly stimulated manufacturing in the more advanced industrial countries of Latin America, just as it did in the United States. The demand of belligerent countries for foodstuffs encouraged development in this field, and several United States companies established branch plants in Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. New consumer goods industries to supply local markets with necessities formerly imported were installed, and many established industries expanded. With the ending of the war and the severe competition from world markets, a number of these industries were unable to survive, although many of them, which were established on a sound economic basis, continued. As a result of this wartime experience, the desire for more balanced economies became more intense.



Photograph by Compañía Mexicana Aerofoto, S. A.

A LARGE MEXICAN TEXTILE FACTORY

Leading business men and port officials in Latin America and the United States are agreed that industrialization will increase trade rather than diminish it.

During the 1920's there was less emphasis on manufacturing, no doubt due in a large part to the fact that most countries were receiving large incomes from exports of raw materials. Nevertheless, there was considerable industrial expansion; many foreign branch factories, oil refineries, chemical plants, power companies, and pharmaceutical packaging concerns, to mention some of the most prominent examples, were installed. Automobile assembly, which began in Argentina during the first war, was extended to Brazil and Mexico. Until this time, the tariff had been employed by most Latin American countries principally for revenue, but there began a gradual process toward specialization in application of this restrictive measure. This selective protection resulted in the encouragement of these new industries and new branch factories.

The depression of the 1930's at first hurt the manufacturing industry in Latin America, as elsewhere in the world. International

trade became severely contracted. Incomes previously received from exports were sharply reduced, and many of the countries found themselves short of foreign exchange. This forced drastic curtailments in imports. Depreciated currencies increased the cost of imported goods. By 1931 most Latin American countries began to protect their currencies through exchange control, and initiated measures to stimulate industries and agricultural production through protection, government financing, and borrowing technical assistance from the United States and elsewhere. As conditions generally improved, exchange controls and other restrictions were continued, and the movement toward industrialization and better balanced economies was given further impetus. Outstanding developments occurred in industrial chemicals, paper manufacturing, cement plants, glass industries, branch rubber and tire factories, packaging, and the use of paper containers, as well as in paper in general. Also expand-

ing was the assembly of imported parts, which began reaching the stage of almost complete manufacture of such articles as refrigerators, radio receivers and parts, and other electrical installations. Truck and bus bodies, as well as accessories, incandescent lamps, machinery, iron and steel products, building materials, and processed food products were manufactured in larger quantities.

The Second World War brought a repetition of the phenomena of the First, with the exception that the impetus given to the development of industries and resources was much greater. Inter-American cooperation for mutual benefit moved forward on a broader scale to meet the problems created by wartime conditions, and was directed toward encouragement of new industries, expansion of inter-American trade to compensate for lost markets and sources of supply outside this hemisphere, production of strategic materials for the United Nations' war needs, maintenance of essential civilian and war services, and development of certain long-range economic facilities.

The growth of manufacturing industries was exceptional in the larger countries. The war also stimulated economic growth in Latin America in many categories, such as mining, agriculture, air transport, and highways, although the difficulty in obtaining machinery, industrial materials, and shipping space, as well as technicians, prevented full realization of many plans. Advances were made in the iron and steel industries, particularly in Mexico and Brazil, in the metal-working enterprises in many countries, in drugs and chemicals, paper and pulp, paints and pigments, lumber and other construction materials, many types of foodstuffs, and in the cotton and wool textile industries, which broke all previous production records. Other industries were established or expanded to furnish consumer goods in short supply as a result of the war. The war also saw the es-

tablishment, through inter-American collaboration, of many new health and sanitation facilities and agricultural experimental projects, which will provide lasting benefits to the industrial and general economic development of Latin America, and to the raising of living standards.

During the wartime period, a new type of development, or *fomento*, corporation came into existence in Chile and Colombia. Still another form of development agency grew up in Ecuador, Bolivia and Haiti. Both types of agency were meant to provide financial, managerial, and operational assistance in general development to improve basic economic conditions of those countries. These agencies have promoted and assisted development in such categories as iron and steel, highways, irrigation, warehouses, agriculture, fishing, communications, and others. In general they are focusing attention on the over-all improvement of basic economic conditions, as distinguished from certain limited development of highly profitable enterprises. Other organizations also were established to undertake similar development projects in other countries; the most outstanding examples are in Argentina, Brazil, and Venezuela.

The Export-Import Bank of Washington contributed materially to the wartime development of industries and other economic facilities in the other Americas through loans made to development agencies, as well as for other projects designed to strengthen the economic structure of the American republics and thereby assist the defense of the Western Hemisphere.

Some of these wartime industries may not be able to withstand competition under normal trade conditions and if not able to obtain protection through governmental restrictions may find it necessary to discontinue. Others will continue on a basis of economic soundness. However, future expansion and

development are expected to move ahead generally in most industrial categories, and notably in the chemical industry and all of its ramifications, the metal working industries, wood, pulp, and paper industries, textiles, and leather manufacturing.

In some industries, development during the war was retarded because of the dislocation of trade and the difficulties of obtaining equipment, machinery, and other necessary materials. During this period, priorities were granted other American republics to obtain equipment related to the war, strategic materials, and the most essential civilian services, upon much the same basis as was applied in the United States. This, however, was not sufficient to satisfy the fundamental industrialization impulse in many of these countries. But now, as trade begins to fall back into peacetime channels, and equipment, materials, and shipping become available, the control on this fundamental trend gradually will be released, and many large-scale developments will move forward.

Industrialization of Latin America may change somewhat the pattern of trade between the Americas. But leading business men and government officials in both Latin America and the United States are agreed that industrialization will increase over-all trade rather than diminish it. As industrialization increases, standards of living and purchasing power will rise, thus making these countries better markets, particularly for finished products not previously imported by them in large quantities. At the same time, they will increase their capacity to produce at lower prices their exportable products, thus passing the benefits to their customers. Highly industrialized countries, between which there has been the largest flow of world trade, recognize the fact that they cannot trade on a large scale with a poor neighbor.

During this war, inter-American trade has

moved forward in step with industrialization. During 1944 the United States exports to Latin America totaled \$1,034,000,000 as compared with \$564,000,000 during 1938, the last pre-war normal year. United States imports from Latin America were \$1,586,000,000 in 1944 as compared with \$485,000,000 in 1938. This growth in trade between the United States and Latin America has been paralleled by increased trade among the other Americas. Latin American exports greatly exceeded imports during the war period, as a result of which the Latin American Republics have accumulated large trade balances, estimated at more than \$3,500,000,000, which they are anxious to use to purchase equipment and machinery to carry forward their industrial and development programs.

It has been estimated in a study made by the Office of Inter-American Affairs and published by the Inter-American Development Commission that during the first ten years of the postwar period Latin America may require, for expansion of present capital goods, facilities, machinery and equipment valued at \$7,000,000,000, and for worn out and obsolete equipment, machinery worth another \$3,000,000,000. Equipment for both new installations and replacements will be for power and communications, transportation in all categories, building construction, food processing, textiles, iron and steel, chemicals, agriculture, mining and petroleum, lumbering, woodworking, paper, fishing, scientific apparatus, a wide variety of consumer goods, and other purposes.

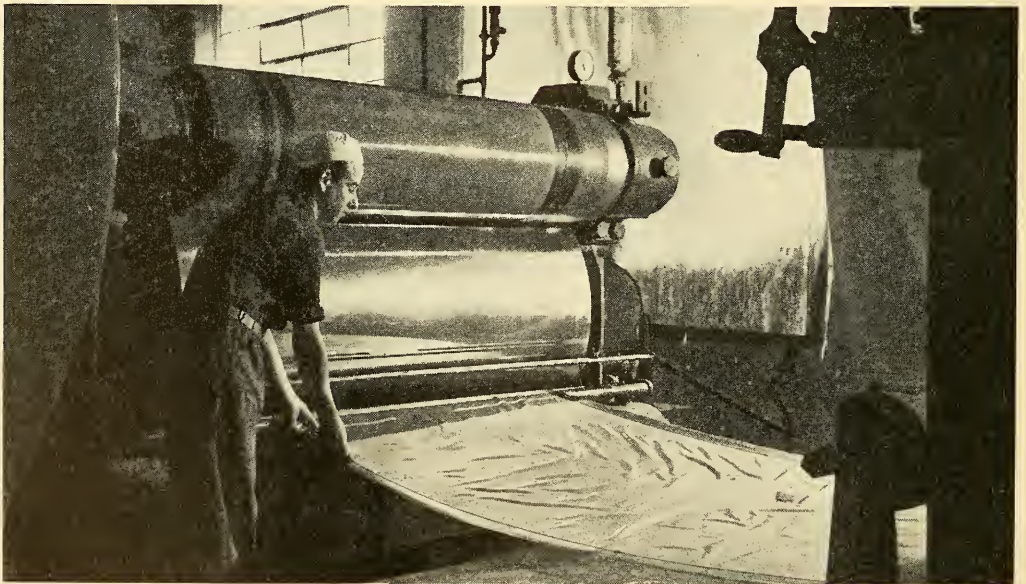
While there is a substantial development of industry throughout Latin America, it should be remembered that industrialization in these countries is not and cannot be on the same scale or of the same magnitude as in the United States or other highly industrialized countries. Nevertheless, most of these countries have great industrialization ambi-

tions. Many of them may have set goals too high, and may endeavor to go too far too fast. A certain number of their industries will have economic justification for existence, particularly in larger countries, while others may encounter difficulties. Quite a number of countries want heavy industries, such as iron and steel. However, in some of these countries such heavy industry may prove to be a liability and tend to increase living costs of the population. A few of these countries may endeavor to develop and maintain heavy industries through protection. However, it would be a fundamental error to protect uneconomic industries which would be a burden upon the people as well as upon other industries in the country.

The handling of such complex economic problems will require the highest quality of statesmanship and judgment. Government and business leaders should determine whether the industry under study is one

which would be in a position to furnish goods or services on a competitive basis with similar domestic or imported products without the necessity of continued protective measures, and at the same time yield adequate returns to capital, management, and labor. They must guard against indiscriminate industrialization for the sake of self-sufficiency only. The sound economic development of Latin America must be balanced with an even utilization of agricultural, pastoral, forestal, and mineral resources, and properly integrated with the development of manufacturing plants, transportation facilities, and power resources. The elements that form the pattern of balanced development also will be influenced by the individual country's geographical position, climatic conditions, and the technological advancement of its inhabitants.

One of the activities of Inter-American Development Commission and of its affli-



A LATIN AMERICAN RUBBER FACTORY

The manufacture of industrial chemicals, paper, cement, glass, tires and other rubber products was increased in Latin America in the 1930's.

ated national commissions is to furnish governments and development agencies, upon request, specialists and technicians to assist in planning and executing economically sound projects. While it is an important function of the Commission to assist in sound development, an equally important activity is that of recommending against establishment of projects when surveys indicate that they are not economically feasible and sound. The primary purpose of the Inter-American Development Commission is to aid and promote the development of hemisphere resources and industry and thus contribute to the raising of living standards. The activities of this international organization include assisting in the establishment of sound industrial projects in Latin America and acting in an advisory capacity to private business and governments, as well as enlisting their collaboration on economic matters, making economic surveys, and providing technical missions, industrial engineers, and other specialists for Latin American governments and development agencies. Although created during the wartime emergency, the Inter-American Development Commission is now one of the most effective instruments of practical and direct inter-American cooperation established during long years of efforts toward mutual collaboration in this hemisphere.

Future industrial and economic development will not follow necessarily the same pattern, nor be of the same magnitude, in all countries, because of profound differences between them. Each country or region has different social, economic, geographic, and climatic conditions, racial characteristics, national aspirations, and educational and technological levels. These differences, of course, make it impossible to consider specific development problems of the Latin American republics as a group; many countries will advance in varying degrees while

others may stand still altogether. The most prominent economic characteristic of the Latin American republics, however, is that they produce crude foodstuffs and raw material for export and import a wide variety of processed foodstuffs and manufactured and semi-manufactured articles.

The requests for United States technical assistance of all kinds from Latin American countries is increasing. A representative cross-section of the types of requests being received is had from a study of the reports made by the national commissions to the First Conference of Commissions of Inter-American Development last year. In addition to assistance sought in planning general economic improvement programs through development of industries, communications, transportation, agriculture, livestock, hydroelectric resources, forestry resources, and other raw materials, requests also are made for technical assistance in developing irrigation projects, rubber plants, sugar mills, rope and fiber plants, edible animal and vegetable oils, sawmills, rice mills, meat packing, textiles, paper and cardboard, cement, glass and glassware, chemicals, pharmaceutical products, shoes and leather, furniture factories, flour mills, cigar and cigarette factories, foundry and machine shops, canned foods, ceramics, and many other enterprises.

Another indication of the trend towards giving more emphasis in Latin America to the technical aspects of industrialization is seen in the organization of a number of standardization bodies in the other Americas by both private and governmental groups, and their excellent work in the field of materials testing. The Inter-American Development Commission and its network of national Commissions are actively cooperating with many of these standardization bodies in the promotion of uniform technical standards throughout the Americas. Such measures provide valuable assistance and stimulus to

industry as a whole, as well as to inter-American trade.

The speed with which industrialization advances in Latin America will depend in great part upon the development of transportation and agriculture. Agriculture, in general, often is primitive and of the subsistence variety, and transportation frequently is inadequate, especially to the interior of the countries. With increased development of transportation, a greater market will be provided for industrial products, and will, at the same time, make raw materials produced from agriculture, forests, and mines more accessible to consuming centers. With the development of agriculture the incomes of the inhabitants will be raised and thus they will be better customers for manufactured articles. Agriculture and industry go hand in hand, and in the long run must develop together, the important link between them being transportation. The purchasing power of the people is an important consideration in the development of industry, and inasmuch as a large portion of the population in Latin America is dependent upon agriculture, its importance to industry is obvious.

The transportation problem, which has been one of Latin America's greatest obstacles to economic expansion, is being met largely by increases in airports and air transport and by construction of new highways, which will be further accelerated as world conditions improve. In the case of some countries, the problem also is being solved by improvement of inland and ocean shipping as well as by improvement of the railway systems. Only a few countries, however, have any semblance of developed railroad systems, and there has been no tendency in recent years to expand on any large scale the railway lines in Latin America.

Agriculture is being stimulated by the extension of government credits to farmers,

large scale projects for modernization, establishment of better marketing facilities, education, irrigation projects, borrowing of technical assistance, and other measures. An example of technical assistance in this field is the agricultural specialist furnished by the Inter-American Development Commission to the Ecuadorean government to assist the National Bank of Development in planning and executing an over-all agricultural improvement program.

Closely related to the balanced development of the economic facilities of a country is the size of the market, a most important factor in Latin America, which is divided into many regions not connected by adequate transportation. In fact, many leading countries have not as yet developed any real domestic markets. The twenty Latin American republics have a combined population of approximately 130,000,000 inhabitants. These range individually from less than 2,000,000 to about 45,000,000, as in the case of Brazil. The number of inhabitants, of course, does not necessarily indicate the size of the market for a particular product. Such factors as economic conditions, the purchasing power of the people, customs, habits, transportation facilities, and others must be considered separately for each country or region. It is obvious, of course, that a country with a higher standard of living and more fully developed transportation system in general offers larger market possibilities per capita.

Technical manpower is another problem facing the movement toward increased industrialization of the other Americas. The workmen of Latin America, as a rule, are exceptionally good. However, there is a great lack of specialists in certain skills. The training of foremen and other technical personnel is one of the important problems, and in some sections the shortage of even unskilled labor will present a difficult prob-

lem in the development of some industries.

Sharing technical knowledge is without doubt one of the most effective methods of improving development of hemisphere economic resources, and therefore during the war the United States encouraged many Latin American technicians and specialists to come to the United States for training. The system of Commissions of Inter-American Development is actively interested in this training program, which is expected to expand as world conditions improve, and is assisting in the selection of young men from Latin America to come to the United States for practical technical training in industry and business. The central Commission is also carrying forward plans to bring engineers and technicians to the United States to study and observe conditions and institutions in their fields. An example of this program is a technical mission of six prominent Brazilian engineering professors which recently surveyed some of the leading technical institutions and the operations of modern industrial organizations in the United States; arrangements were made by the central Commission in Washington, and its affiliate, the Brazilian Commission of Inter-American Development. As a result of the survey, the mission recommended modernization of Brazil's engineering educational methods, based on the system in the United States, to help meet the demands of growing industrial activity in that country.

The availability of power and fuel is another important consideration in determining the feasibility of developing certain industries. Lack of good coking coal in most Latin American countries has been a great obstacle to considerable industrialization, particularly in the heavy industries, such as iron and steel. Many of these

countries, however, are expanding development of hydroelectric power on a large scale, but at present this is not always available in sufficient quantities and, in some cases, at low enough rates to encourage rapid industrial expansion. Moreover, in some countries there are no hydroelectric resources. An idea of the enormous possibilities for expansion is seen from the fact that Latin America has hydroelectric resources estimated at more than 50,000,000 horsepower, of which less than five percent is developed. Inasmuch as the present world industrial trend is based upon more fuel oil, hydroelectric power, and chemistry, and new technological methods in the use of power sources are advancing rapidly, the lack of coal may not be a great handicap to Latin America in the future.

Sound industrialization in the other Americas offers new opportunities, but with the ending of the world conflict, we must now face realistically the problem of using new and future economic facilities intelligently to maintain hemisphere production, inter-American trade, and employment at high levels. With the aid of the inter-American system of cooperation, these problems will be satisfactorily met and industrial and other development will go forward as never before. All of the republics stand to profit from this development of hemisphere economic facilities. As each country makes a fuller utilization of its resources, its inhabitants will benefit by increased incomes and higher standards of living. With greater incomes and purchasing power, the nations of America will become better customers and thus contribute to an increased and orderly international trade, which is recognized as a basis for continued peace and prosperity throughout the world.



Courtesy of Guillermo Kraft

FIRST ARGENTINE BOOK FAIR, 1943

Argentine Books, Messengers of Argentine Democracy

GUILLERMO KRAFT

President of the Argentine Publishers Association

One can do anything with bayonets,
sir, except sit down upon them.

—TALLEYRAND TO NAPOLEON

Fortunately the world seems to have stilled forever the terrible clash of bayonets.

The last bayonets, the last that served the purpose attributed to them by the French diplomat, will soon be only exhibits in a museum—a museum that in future years will document the wave of madness that almost engulfed the universe.

On the occasion of this Festival of Hope, as the First Pan American Book Exhibit may fittingly be called, let us express our joy at the flat denial that the nations have just given to Talleyrand's theory.

There is, indeed, something else for which bayonets will not serve. They cannot keep on his knees a man who knows how to die with his head unbowed.

The young men who have died thus facing the foe decree from their graves the repudiation of bayonets. As these weapons fall into

disuse, let us close a grievous chapter in the history of mankind. May the blood of the fallen make fruitful the years to come, and may books—the source of all greatness, the proclaimers of all brotherhood—illumine the cloudless days about to dawn upon the world.

The chains of slavery bind only the hands; it is the mind that makes a free man or a slave.

—FRANZ GRILLPARZER

Argentina, hitherto known for its meat, is now trying to make itself known for its books.

A full consciousness of the significance of books as a means to culture and progress spurs our publishers on and guides them towards a definite goal.

Argentina is now the leading publishing center for books in Spanish, and this is the result of our energy rather than of others' inertia.

Millions and millions of volumes are today garnered from our presses in a wonderful harvest of books. They are represented in national statistics by figures in the millions of pesos. They also tell the four corners of the world of our flourishing publishing industry and its quality. But this would mean little if books did not first of all make people aware of knowledge and if they did not scatter their teachings broadcast and instill a divine discontent.

Books wither when there are no readers, as flowers wither and die in the desert. Large editions are impossible unless people in general welcome the creative inspiration of the printed word. The pleasant conclusion to which my position as President of the Argentine Publishers Association leads me in view of our present wealth of books is this: Are we printing more and more books? Well, there are more and more readers. Are there more readers? That is because the nation is traveling faster towards

its goal, for a reading nation is a creative nation, and faith impels nations in their progress toward greatness as it impels men in their journey towards God.

If, as Grillparzer said, it is the mind that makes a free man or a slave, then on the day when every mind receives the communion of the book the world will have left behind forever the night of slavery.

Men, like nations, do not have wings; they advance on foot, step by step.

—ALBERDI

Step by step nations advance when they are sure of arriving at their goal. Step by step move the sower and star. And in the same way Argentine publishing advances towards its promised land.

The 28 million volumes printed in Argentina in 1944 against the 18 million issued the preceding year show clearly that we are making steady progress.

In fact, in two years Argentine production has almost doubled, for in 1942 only 15,250,000 volumes came off the presses. And if we take as an index the number of books registered in the national copyright office, we shall have an idea of how their number continues to increase.

Indeed, limiting ourselves to scientific and literary works and omitting new editions of old books, we see that in 1934 509 books were copyrighted; in 1935, 977; in 1936, 1,322; in 1937, 1,602; in 1938, 2,411; in 1939, 2,637; in 1940, 3,807; in 1941, 3,432; in 1942, 3,784; and in 1943, 4,923.

Last year the number of books registered—3,928—shows a slight decrease. In 1941 and 1942 also the number was lower than in the preceding year. This was not, however, because of a recession in our publishing, but rather because of a noteworthy number of new editions, an indication that the reading masses of Spanish America are constantly increasing in number.

From the Word of God came the creation of man; from the Word of man will come the society of nations.

—VICTOR HUGO

If the greatest of French poets was not mistaken, we publishers have an important mission to fulfill in the eager search for concord that is beginning to mobilize the world.

For the book is today the universal herald of the Word of man, from which, according to Victor Hugo, is to come the society of nations. Accordingly we as producers of books are the tacit depositories of this Word.

Fortunately in Argentina the function of publishing is given its due importance. To make available to the people the enlightening message of creative minds; to foster the habit and joy of reading; to sow in all the

spiritual corners of the country the miraculous seed contained in books—this is the high mission of the publisher and the inescapable duty of the government. Argentine officials and editors have thus interpreted their responsibility in the task of education and uplift to be performed by the printed word.

The first Argentine Book Fair, held in 1943, was a great success. Before its stands passed two million and a half people and from its rostrums, set up in the heart of Buenos Aires, the most representative authors of the country talked with the people. This was perhaps the most notable instance of our constant effort to give an educational orientation to publishing activities and to make of our work a true priesthood.

Organized or sponsored by the Argentine Publishers Association and of course with government approval, numerous literary, artistic and industrial exhibitions have been held in Argentina and in foreign countries. They have all been designed to implement the motto that Argentine editors have adopted, a motto with which every intelligent American agrees: "*America united through books.*"

Know thyself.

—SOCRATES

In this era of living together upon which the world appears to be about to embark, perhaps to Socrates' admonition may be added another: *Know others and make yourselves known to them.*

It is indeed time that we should know others and make ourselves known to them, because only on mutual knowledge can mutual esteem be founded, and only by knowing others can we progress in the difficult task of knowing ourselves. This is the hope of which Argentina has made its books ambassadors: the hope that by making itself known to the other nations of the



GUILLERMO KRAFT

President of the Argentine Publishers' Association



Courtesy of Guillermo Kraft

A SHOW WINDOW OF THE AUTHOR'S PUBLISHING COMPANY

continent it will win their understanding and esteem.

Millions of books entrusted with this mission have gone out to proclaim up and down the New World the contributions of our country to the cause of Americanism. Seventy percent of our national book production, indeed, goes to enrich the spiritual patrimony of the Americas and, in the books' friendly message, carries the name of our country to their masses.

The numbers, surpassed only by the United States totals, amount to 10,675,000 volumes in 1942; to 12,245,198 in 1943, and in 1944 to 19,342,719 volumes, which were exported according to the following table, in which Spain and Canada are also included:

Mexico	4,655,177
Chile	2,298,202

Colombia	1,977,520
Brazil	1,835,042
Venezuela	1,684,890
Peru	1,568,257
Uruguay	1,264,104
Cuba	1,055,399
Bolivia	744,106
Spain	625,184
United States	427,886
Paraguay	267,138
Puerto Rico	224,233
Ecuador	172,520
Dominican Republic	106,902
Panama	103,969
El Salvador	102,898
Guatemala	87,253
Honduras	73,875
Nicaragua	34,765
Canada	25,375
Costa Rica	8,024

Argentine books act as ambassadors of our thoughts, disclosing to the countries of the Americas our true likeness and our real

American protection of intellectual property and the free circulation of the messages of the spirit. Numerous conferences and congresses have been held in America for the purpose of creating an organization to co-ordinate and give legal form to the viewpoints of our countries on the interchange of books and the reciprocal support of intellectual rights. At one of these meetings, the *Second Conference of National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation*, held at Habana in 1941, it was voted to recommend to the American countries *the repeal of all taxes or duties which would hinder the free circulation in their territories of books, pamphlets, reviews, and newspapers printed in any American nation.*

But so far, in spite of the unanimity with which the idea of an America united through books is supported, books lack the franchises needed to carry out the work of rapprochement and friendship that we

have entrusted to them as ambassadors. Why? Perhaps because we do not remember as often as we should the maxim of Cervantes: "The road is always better than the inn."

Inter-American treaties and conventions on authors' rights

In order to show the paradox intrinsic in the lack of a Pan American copyright system that would promote the interchange of books, let us outline what has so far been done in America along this line.

The first treaty on the subject was signed by Uruguay, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Argentina in 1889. It was drawn up at Montevideo, at the *South American Congress on Private International Law*, and its second article provided that the author of any literary or artistic work or his assigns should enjoy in the signatory States the rights granted by the law of the State



Courtesy of Guillermo Kraft

ARGENTINE BOOKS ON VIEW IN SANTIAGO, CHILE
An exhibit arranged by the Argentine Publishers' Association.

where it was first published or produced.

Thirteen years later, in 1902, the first convention for the protection of literary and artistic property in America was signed at *Mexico City* at the *Second International Conference of American States*. This convention, to which 17 American countries were parties, adopted the principle of the *lex fori*; and contrary to the *Montevideo* treaty but like the *Berne* copyright convention, it provided that authors "who belong to one of the signatory countries, or their assigns, shall enjoy in the other countries the right which their respective laws at present grant, or in the future may grant, to their own citizens, but such right shall not exceed the term of protection granted in the country of its origin."

At the Third International Conference of American States held at Rio de Janeiro in 1906, 19 nations signed the Convention on Patents of Invention, Drawings and Industrial Models, Trade-marks, and Literary and Artistic Property. This convention provided for the creation of two offices of the Inter-American Union for the Protection of Intellectual and Industrial Property, to centralize the registration of literary and artistic works, patents, trade-marks, etc. deposited in one of the signatory countries and to make such registration valid in the others, but since 10 of the parties failed to ratify the convention, these offices were not set up.

Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua decided in the general treaty of peace and friendship signed at Washington in 1907 at the Central American Peace Conference that "citizens of the signatory countries who reside in the territory of the others shall enjoy the right of liberty, artistic or industrial property in the same manner and subject to the same requirements as natives."

And the *Bolivarian Congress* held at

Caracas in 1911 was the occasion of the signature of an agreement on literary and artistic property by Peru, Ecuador, and Venezuela.

The Buenos Aires Convention and the Pan American Union projects

The name of *Buenos Aires*, the meeting place of the *Fourth International Conference of American States* in 1910, is linked with the most important convention so far signed on our continent for the protection of intellectual property. This convention, signed by twenty countries and ratified by fourteen, was revised and amended in *Habana* eighteen years later at the *Sixth International Conference of American States*. The plan for a union to protect intellectual rights was given up and it was provided that:

The acknowledgment of a copyright obtained in one state, in conformity with its laws, shall produce its effects of full right in all the other States, without the necessity of complying with any other formality provided there always shall appear in the work a statement that indicates the reservation of the property right.

At the *Seventh International Conference of American States* held at *Montevideo* late in 1933, a committee was appointed to prepare a project reconciling the principles of American law with the *Berne* copyright convention. In 1936 this committee presented to the Pan American Union, for transmission to the American governments, a preliminary project of a *World Convention for the Protection of Intellectual Rights*.

Next came the *Eighth International Conference of American States*, which assembled at *Lima* in 1938. In the light of the experience of American countries and of the evolution of the law concerning intellectual property, a study was made of the *Buenos Aires Convention* and the project for an additional protocol. This project was pre-

pared by the United States Commission on Intellectual Cooperation, and revised by the Pan American Union in accordance with the observations of the American countries. And in compliance with a resolution of the Eighth Conference, the Pan American Union decided to call a special meeting of experts for the consideration of this additional protocol and the preparation of a Project for an Inter-American Convention on the Protection of Intellectual Rights.

Since this meeting of experts was postponed because of the war, the Pan American Union was requested to prepare and submit to the American governments a definite project of convention. At the meeting held on February 7, 1945, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union again approved the convocation of a special meeting of experts at a date still to be fixed.

This is an outline of the steps taken on our continent to promote the free circulation of American books while duly protecting the rights of their authors.

To close this summary, mention should also be made of the agreement on intellectual property signed at *Montevideo*, the scene of the *Second South American Conference on Private International Law*. Bolivia, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Argentina signed this agreement on *August 4, 1939*. It should be observed that they were the same countries that in 1889 took the first step toward the recognition and protection in America of the "rights of genius."

The future Pan American Copyright Union

Even without taking into account the increasing publishing activity that has turned my country into the leading center for book-publishing in the Spanish-speaking world, I urge as an American the rapid and

definitive organization of a system that will guarantee in America the most sacred of property rights and will promote the most fundamental and unexceptionable form of interchange.

For this purpose, nothing would be more effective in my opinion than the calling of a conference to create the Pan American Copyright Union.

It is not the purpose of this paper, which is designed to express the pleasure of Argentine publishers in participating in the First Pan American Book Exposition, to suggest from a juridical viewpoint or even from a professional one the method by which America is to solve the problem of copyright protection. I believe that this is at bottom a moral question rather than a legal one and that men identified with the aims of our peoples can do as much in its solution as those expert in the mechanics of legislation.

But there are four points that I take the liberty of proposing as pillars of the above-mentioned Pan American Copyright Union:

1. The creation of a central office in which all the works registered and deposited in each of the signatory countries should be registered. For this purpose the national or local offices would have the duty of notifying the central office promptly of these registrations.
2. The registration of publication, translation, and other contracts in the central office by the same procedure. Such registration would be effective in all signatory countries and would make any other formality unnecessary.
3. The abolition of duties, consular invoices, and any other barriers to the free circulation of books, newspapers, magazines, etc. in the territories of the signatory countries, provided that the publications are printed in one of these countries. Likewise foreign exchange would be freely granted and all censorship, direct or indirect, would cease.
4. The granting of differential postal rates for books, newspapers, and magazines.

Once these essential bases have been accepted, steps should be taken to establish

close relations between the Pan American Copyright Union and the Berne Union, so as to harmonize the juridical concepts of the New World with those of Europe, and thus give the work of this organization a universal character.

Let us consecrate America to books

Only thus, by granting Pan American citizenship to every book, shall we obey the mandate of the young men who died with heads unbowed to save the world from the terrible clash of bayonets.

Only thus, by studying ourselves and making ourselves known to one another through books, those mirrors of the mind and soul,

shall we progress in the difficult task of knowing ourselves.

Only thus shall we definitely unite America by consecrating it to books, for a book is the chalice of the Word of man, and from the Word of man will come the society of nations, just as the creation of man came from the Word of God.

In the work of unification and friendship to which the times summon us, the Argentine spirit will always play its part, since it finds joy and inspiration in the sacred principles of democracy and sends its books, those trustworthy messengers, to proclaim throughout all America the strength of its convictions.



Chile and its Books

AMANDA LABARCA H.

Member of the Council of the University of Chile

THE love of reading among Chileans, evident even in colonial times, is like a vein of gold shining in the rocks. During "The Enlightenment" at the end of the 18th century, while State and Church fought to preserve the power of censoring reading matter, many persons surreptitiously, slyly, and systematically evaded all barriers, acquiring not only works prohibited because of heresy but also, and this was more important, pamphlets and subversive literature destined to undermine the foundations of the old régime in the Americas.¹

Three sources supplied printed matter at the end of the colonial period: the Church, the creoles who traveled in Spain, and the contraband trade. The Church furnished the small, carefully selected libraries of the convents and monasteries. After the expulsion of the Jesuits, these books passed into various hands and later, when independence was achieved, many of them were gathered to form the most valuable collection of manuscripts and incunabula in the National Library at Santiago, as well as in the libraries at Lima and Bogotá.

Among the creoles who traveled to Europe in the last third of the 18th century, no one

was as curious about books and as clever in bringing them into the country in clandestine ways as our Francisco Antonio de Rojas, one of the forerunners of Chilean independence. He had the audacity to have the Inquisition itself stamp the boxes in which he was importing, bound under religious titles, the writings of Voltaire, Rousseau, and the much feared Encyclopedists.² But his case was certainly not unique in the last days of the colony. The virus of reading had already infiltrated into American habits.

Contraband trade, which then had the importance of a commercial institution because it was the only means of acquiring merchandise otherwise out of the reach of the Americas, engaged in large-scale traffic in forbidden books, especially those of the French Encyclopedists. And thus the revolution for independence found itself armed with all the libertarian phraseology and all the arguments that the French had been using since 1789.³

In the early days of the Republic, the wooden type of the old printing presses was

² *We have been able to verify, in the General Library of the University of Chile, the existence of a complete file of the first period of Le Journal des Sçavans, brought to the country by this astute reader in the 18th century.*

³ *"No less than 175 French ships traded in Chile and Peru from 1695 to 1751, and they were probably as numerous in many years in the Plata and parts of the Caribbean. During the war of 1779-1783, trade with or via France and the French Antilles was common.*

"Rojas' copies of Bayle, Holbach, Montesquieu and others circulated in Chile, and Nordenflycht lent Voltaire's Henriade, Montesquieu's Esprit des Lois, and other works to persons in Peru." Whitaker, op. cit., pp. 30 and 33.

¹ *"The Index of 1790 prohibited the works, or the important part of the works, of Bayle, Bossuet, Brisson, Brissot de Warville, Burlamaqui, Diderot, the Encyclopedists, Helvetius, Holbach, La Fontaine, Marmoniel, Montaigne, Montesquieu, Raynal, Rousseau, and Voltaire. It laid restrictions upon Bodin, Bayle, Condillac, Jansen and Moreri's Dictionnaire." Whitaker, Arthur Preston. Latin America and the Enlightenment, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1942, p. 25.*

kept in continual use in all the southern countries. The appearance of the *Catecismo Político Cristiano para la instrucción de la juventud de los Pueblos de la América del Sur*, signed by José Amor de la Patria,⁴ a pseudonym attributed to Juan Martínez de Rozas, another forerunner of Chilean independence, was the first instance in Chile of the employment of the printed page for political propaganda. Newspapers were not far behind. With the *Aurora de Chile*, issued at Santiago by Fray Camilo Henríquez in 1812, may be grouped many publications of a similar nature in the other republics. Later Chilean publications in this field were the *Cartas Quillotanas*, published by Bernardo Vera y Pintado in 1814, and the *Cartas Pebuenches*, the work of Juan Egaña, in 1819.

The *Almanaque Chileno*, which appeared in 1817, is more than a pamphlet; it might be called one of the first surveys of current administration.

While political pamphlets which helped independence along were not lacking, the scarcity of textbooks for the newly established primary and secondary schools made education extremely difficult. Until late in the 1830's, books were still infrequent in Chile, and persons who could afford the luxury of a private library or who wished to have one were scarce indeed. Among them Juan Egaña and his son Mariano hold a distinguished place. Their collections are today part of the Chilean National Library.

The place of books was taken by reviews, satirical weeklies, and daily papers, which in Chile began to be a national institution with the foundation of *El Mercurio* of Valparaíso in 1837. The oldest of present-day newspapers, it is a leading exponent of the Chilean press.

The *Diario Político*, which appeared in

⁴This might be translated Joseph Patriot.—
EDITOR.



AMANDA LABARCA

Member of the University Council.

1839, gave Juan Nicolás Álvarez the means of political argument and mordant criticism. *El Semanario* of Santiago was the mouthpiece of the young men who lighted the fire of romantic literature in what has been called the 1842 Movement. Francisco de Paula Matta opened a new field for ideas in *El Siglo* (1844), while in the pages of *El Crepúsculo* (1844) Francisco Bilbao let fly with socialist doctrines, to the astonishment and scandalization of his pious contemporaries.

Nevertheless, France was usually the source for books that were bought by Chileans, and the place where Chilean books were printed. There Lastarria published his *Lecciones de Geografía Moderna*. There appeared the volumes of the *Historia Física y Política de Chile* by Claudio Gay, on which

the imprint is "París, Imprenta de Maulde y Renou, calle Bailleul 9, cerca del Louvre, año 1846."

Books were sold in groceries with jerked beef and tallow, in drygoods stores, at ironmongers', or in the public street, where they were hawked like any other merchandise. In the middle of the century the blind Pedro Puebla was famous for the singsong in which he cried books for sale, just as he cried the ballads in which popular bards recounted memorable events.

According to Pedro Pablo Figueroa, the first bookstore in Chile was owned by Santos Tornero, who opened it at Valparaíso in 1840. Later he started another in Santiago under the name of Librería Española. In his book, *Reminiscencias de un viejo editor*, Señor Tornero says: "France and England, especially the former, were the countries that supplied Chile with its first books in Spanish. They were generally reprints made in small volumes imported by consignees, who sold them for so much a volume—primers, catechisms, prayerbooks, etc. The customary price was 3 or 4 reales (37½ to 50 centavos gold), and no one paid more."

From time to time other books published abroad circulated in Chile: for instance, those by Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, the famous Argentine expatriate living in our country, which he had published in the United States and which found their greatest audience in Chile; those printed in Spanish by D. Appleton and Company in New York; and others from Brockhaus of Leipzig. Various publishers were to be found in Valparaíso or in Santiago. Among these were Julio Belín and Company, active in the 1840's and 1850's; Manuel Rivadeneyra, who later went to Spain and there edited the famous Biblioteca Rivadeneyra de Clásicos Españoles, which became the principal source for the study of the Spanish classics at the end of the 19th and beginning of the

20th century;⁵ and Santos Tornero, who was entrusted with the printing of some official publications. In general it was the newspapers, such as *El Deber* of Valparaíso and *El Independiente* of Santiago, that provided type for the printing of books.

Gradually, more printing houses made their appearance, but they published only for the government and on order of individuals. Such, for instance, was the press called *El Siglo*, and those of *Los Tribunales*, *La Chilena*, and *La Nacional*, which printed the *Anales* of the University of Chile; *El Mercurio* press, owned by the Tornero Brothers; the Gutenberg Press; the American Press, the property of a United States citizen named La Fetra; the Cervantes, which was running in 1886; the Barcelona, which began

⁵ "Under the patronage of Diego Antonio Barros, Rivadeneyra undertook at Santiago in 1840 the management of the press called 'La Opinión,' which published the Chilean official gazette, 'El Araucano.' The famous scholar, Andrés Bello, was then its editor. In 1841 Rivadeneyra purchased 'El Mercurio' of Valparaíso. He returned to Europe in 1842"—*Diccionario Biográfico de Extranjeros en Chile*, Imprenta Moderna, Santiago de Chile, 1900, p. 190.



Photograph by Ernesto Galarza

CHILEAN MAGAZINES ARE POPULAR



THE CHILEAN NATIONAL LIBRARY AT SANTIAGO

Among the famous collections belonging to this library are books that once were the property of the Jesuit missionaries and others gathered by the book-lovers Juan Egaña and his son Mariano.

to operate in the 1890's; the Modern Press; and others.

Roberto Miranda is an honorable exception. A cultivated businessman with advanced ideas, he opened in the 1880's his store for old and modern books. It was he who began the sale of Chilean books abroad. After putting himself in contact with José A. Soffia, poet and minister of Chile in Colombia, he sent to Bogotá a series of Chilean books which were warmly welcomed there: poems by Soffia, Matta, Blest Gana, the *Instituta* of José Clemente Fabres, a collection of reports on the Civil Code presented to the University, etc. Stimulated by his success, he then established relations with Pedro Igón and Company, Buenos Aires bookdealers, A. Barreiro y Ramos of Montevideo, etc. When the World's Fair was held

in France in 1884, Miranda sent to Paris a collection of Chilean books, among which the place of honor was given to those by José V. Lastarria.

Having thus started on the road, Miranda turned into a real publisher. Thanks to his efforts, histories by such Chilean authors as Barros Arana and Vicuña Mackenna circulated in the whole continent. This was true also of books by publicists, including Valentín Letelier and Zorobabel Rodríguez; by such jurists as Jorge Huneeus and José Clemente Fabres; and by the poets already mentioned.

The great services rendered by Miranda to the spread of Chilean books won him an appointment by President Balmaceda on an official commission sent to Europe in 1890. The purpose of this commission was

to have a complete official edition of the Chilean Codes printed, at the cost and risk of the publisher. Miranda took with him, furthermore, a number of Chilean books which were sold to various institutions, among them the library of the British Museum. About that time the Parisian firm of Garnier Frères began to publish its series in Spanish destined especially for the Spanish American countries.

The expansion of the Spanish publishing companies at the beginning of this century flooded Chile, like the rest of America, with low-priced books within the reach of studious youth. Casa Sopena may be said to be responsible for the outbursts of anarchy between 1900 and 1910. The young people who caused these outbreaks later became influential in the advanced policies of the last two generations. Sopena made known in Latin America the Marxist writers and the Russian, French, and Spanish authors of the turn of the century, while Maucci of Barcelona rescued from oblivion a number of European authors whose books he translated

into Spanish. Then España Moderna, Calpe, and other publishers turned our bookstores into outlets for their enterprises. The same thing happened with the books published at 3.50 francs by Garnier, Bouret, Flammarion, Lemerre, etc.

The Chilean authors who wished to have their books printed generally had it done at their own expense. The most fortunate ones went to Madrid or Paris in search of publishers who, because of overseas markets, could give them fame in the Americas. The Chilean poet Francisco Contreras and the novelist Blest Gana, for example, found publishers in Paris in the first and second decades of this century,⁶ as did other celebrated Ibero-American authors.

About the same time Carlos George Nascimento began to make Chilean literature better known, for he had by then both a bookstore and a printing establishment. As far as textbooks were concerned, he had company in Manuel Guzmán Maturana and a few others, whose work, nevertheless, could not compete in America with the output of French and Spanish publishers.

The situation changed considerably during the depression of 1929-1933, when it was impossible for Chile to send exchange abroad. In order to be informed on world thought, Chile had to print its own books at a cost within the means of its people.

Don Carlos de Vidts, an authority on publishing in Chile, said in an address before the Third Congress of Newspaper and Publishing Personnel held at Santiago in July 1945:

The year 1930 marks the beginning of an epoch in the development of what may properly be called the Chilean publishing industry. It is true that there had previously been energetic pub-



YOUNG CHILEAN READERS

⁶ "Toisón" by Contreras appears in the Biblioteca de Poetas Americanos published by the Veuve de Ch. Bouret in Paris, and "Romances de Hoy" by the same author in the Biblioteca Poética of Garnier Frères.



JOSÉ TORIBIO MEDINA ROOM

In a special room of the National Library of Chile are deposited the collections and publications of José Toribio Medina, the great Chilean bibliographer.

lishers, among them Carlos George Nascimento and the managers of the Universo firm, which had a publishing department as early as 1910.⁷ They confined their business to Chile, however, and did not even pretend to compete with Spanish publishers in either the national or the foreign market. In 1930 Zig-Zag began to publish what are today called pocket books under the title of Biblioteca Zig-Zag; these were sold for 1 peso 40 centavos (about 5 cents in American money). This idea of cheap books of universal appeal was immediately taken up by other companies: Ercilla, Empress Letras, Editorial Osiris, Mundo Nuevo, Cultura, Pax, Simiente, Chas, ENE, etc., which set linotypes and presses running at full speed. Thousands and thousands of books, all printed with Chilean material and by Chilean workmen, circulated in large numbers in Chile and, wonderful to say, in other American countries.

Between 1930 and 1936 the Chilean publishing business met both successes and obstacles. Zig-Zag, Letras, and Ercilla, especially, provided almost all our sister re-

publics with the most varied reading, from works on philosophy to books for children. Their especial success was the expansion of the market, and their obstacles were the difficulties of setting up an organization which required for success publishers' associations—then non-existent—and thousands of readers who could buy books. Chile, the Latin American pioneer in the national publishing business, paid a high cost for its inexperience, apprenticeship, and the lack of business honor among the middlemen in the industry and among the competing firms themselves. This painful and dearly bought experience was useful later to the few Chilean publishers who survived the 1930's and to those who shortly afterwards established themselves in our sister republics of Spanish speech.

Just as the world depression showed the need for a publishing industry in Chile, so the Spanish revolution compelled the migra-

⁷ Manuel Guzmán Maturana, who opened his bookstore and Minerva publishing house at about this time, should also be mentioned.

tion to American soil of the publishing companies that flourished in Spain. This continent was their principal market. Spain bought 10 percent of most books printed in Madrid or Barcelona; the balance was shipped overseas.

Those experienced publishers chose Mexico City and Buenos Aires as their centers of activity, the former because of its strategic position with regard to Mexico and the Caribbean area, and the latter because it is the largest Spanish American city. This made things more difficult for Chilean publishers, who had to compete in the same centers.

Referring to this occurrence, Señor de Vidts, whom I quoted above, said in his address:

Let us not forget that the geographical situation of Argentina and Mexico, the wealth of the former and its large population, and the capital of the latter seemed more attractive to the emigrant Spanish publishers. And in their train followed writers and artists of every kind, fleeing from a blazing Europe to settle in these cities.

Therefore the Chilean publishing industry is now going through a hard period, especially because of the competition of Argentine books, which have many privileges in connection with printing and distribution. In 1943 and 1944 Chile printed about a million books, of which 30 percent were exported. In the same years, Argentina placed on the market 46 million, of which almost 70 percent were exported.

Calculations made by Chilean publishers, taking into account the number of books published in Chile and those imported, place our country in the first rank with regard to the number of books read per capita. Chile is truly a country that is fond of reading.

Hand in hand with the publishing problem goes the authors' problem. Outside of journalists, Latin America does not have professional literary men, in the sense of authors who support themselves by their writing. The reason is simple. Usually editions run to 2,000 or 3,000 copies; when they reach 15,000 or 16,000 they are best sellers. At the sales price of 30 pesos a copy,⁸ the author would receive from 6,000 to 9,000 pesos in the first case, or from 45,000 to 60,000 pesos in the second case. In the first, he could support himself from one to six months; in the second, one or two years. The low level of education and of the standard of living are the reasons for these small returns. Illiteracy, which is least in Uruguay, Argentina, and Chile, casts its shadow over large masses of the people, and in some Latin American countries reaches 70 percent. According to the calculations of various sociologists, the Argentines that live comfortably and can therefore give themselves the pleasure of buying books amount to less than 10 percent of the population. In the rest of America the percentage is less. Therefore the Spanish American writer does not have a large public possessed of a surplus that can be spent for books and composed of cultured people who can appreciate them. This is in contrast to the privilege enjoyed by English and American authors on a larger scale than by their colleagues writing in other languages.

More education and a higher standard of living are, after all, the two fundamentals necessary to the success of a publishing industry. They are also requisite for the authors, who need the publishers to make their works known.

⁸ 30 Chilean pesos equal one dollar.

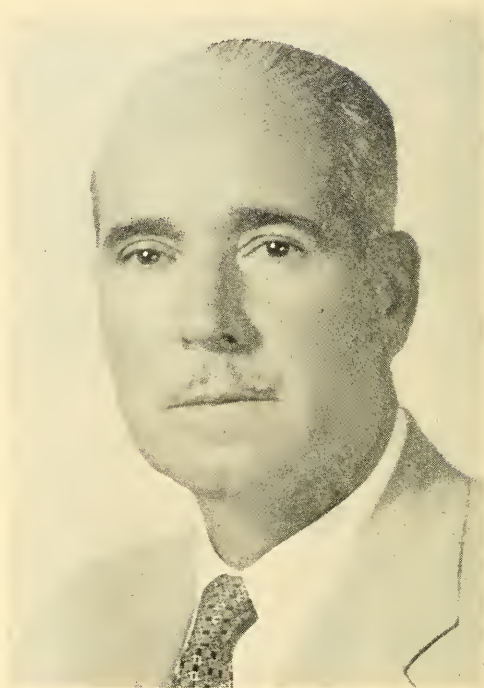
Joaquín José Vallarino Ambassador of Panama

PANAMA has sent as its new Ambassador to the United States a physician of international distinction, Dr. Joaquín José Vallarino, who is already well acquainted with this country from extensive study and travel here. Dr. Vallarino presented his letters of credence to President Truman on August 10 and has assumed his country's representation on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

Dr. Vallarino was born in Panama City on October 24, 1889. His paternal grandfather, José Vallarino, was one of the signers of Panama's Declaration of Independence.

After beginning his studies at the LaSalle School in Panama City, Dr. Vallarino came to the United States and prepared for college at Townsend Harris Hall, College of the City of New York. He received his bachelor's degree at Franklin and Marshall College in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and then went on to study medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. He interned at the Presbyterian Hospital and the Lying-in Hospital in Philadelphia and later did post-graduate work in X-rays at the University of Pennsylvania and took further training at the Mayo Clinic in Rochester, Minnesota, and the Allgemeines Krankenhaus in Vienna.

From 1920 to 1945 Dr. Vallarino was chief radiologist at the Panama Hospital, the Herrick Clinic, and the Santo Tomás Hospital. He has devoted special study to and made highly important discoveries in the field of amoebic colitis, a subject on which he has presented papers at several scientific congresses. He was a specially invited guest at the Congress of the American College of Physicians in New Orleans in 1928 and at



the meeting of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene in London in 1929. In 1943 he was a delegate from Panama to the First Inter-American Congress of Radiology at Buenos Aires. He is a charter member and has twice been president of the National Medical Association of Panama, and is also a member of the Isthmian Canal Zone Medical Society, the American Medical Association, the American College of Surgeons, and the American College of Radiology.

Dr. Vallarino's appointment as Ambassador to the United States does not mark his debut in the field of international relations, since he was Secretary of Foreign Affairs in 1931. He also held public office as a member of the Grand Electoral Jury in 1936.

Ancient Peruvian Textiles

ALFRED KIDDER II, Major, A.U.S.

THE WEAVERS of the textiles in the exhibition¹ being circulated by the Pan American Union were Indians of coastal Peru, as truly American Indians racially and culturally as are the Pueblos or Navajos of our southwest, the Sioux of the plains, and the Aztecs and Mayas of Mexico and Central America.

The coast of Peru forms a narrow desert strip at the base of the towering central Andes, intersected at intervals of twenty or thirty miles by streams rising in the high mountains and forming fertile flood plains at the mouths of deep valleys. The cliffs and beaches of this coast are washed by the cold Humboldt Current, which combines with the prevailing westerly winds and the barrier of the Andes to maintain a temperate, rainless, but rather humid climate.

From the remote past, perhaps several thousand years before Christ, until the Spanish Conquest, begun by Pizarro in 1530, the Indians lived in the lower valleys of this coast. Scientific archeology in Peru, as yet hardly begun, has produced evidence of successive cultural periods, but it has not yet been possible to date the earlier remains accurately. The range in time represented by aboriginal Peruvian textiles is from possibly 300 or 400 A.D. to the late 15th or early 16th century.

¹The fifty textiles in the exhibition, selected from the Textile Museum of the District of Columbia, represent but a small part of the famous collection assembled by Mr. George Hewitt Myers.

This exhibition, entitled "Ancient Peruvian Textiles," was arranged by the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union with the cooperation of the Office of Inter-American Affairs and regional Inter-American Centers throughout the country. Major Alfred Kidder II, a well known archeologist previously with the Peabody Museum of Harvard University, aided in the selection of the textiles and edited the catalogue, to which this article is the foreword.

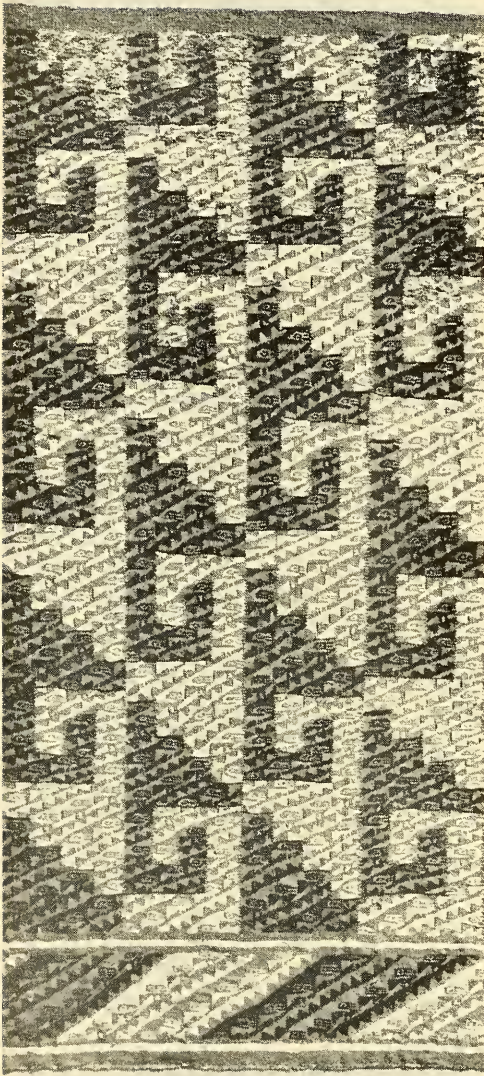
The Indian civilization of the Andes, including the coast of Peru, was one of the two great native cultures of the New World, the other being that of the Maya and early Mexican peoples.

Each valley oasis of the desert coast produced large crops of corn, beans, squashes, sweet potatoes, manioc, peanuts, and cotton, as well as a great variety of other native American root and seed crops and fruits of less value as staples. Such agriculture was made possible by communally built irrigation systems, developed over centuries of time. In addition, the Indians exploited one of the richest fisheries in the world in the cold waters of the Humboldt Current. An unfailing source of food for the people, the fish supported immense colonies of seabirds, aiding the economy through the deposit of tons of guano used by the Indians, as well as by the later Europeans, for the enrichment of their fields.

The coastal Indians were not isolated; their highland neighbors and even the trans-Andean tribes were not far distant, and a lively trade continued for centuries between coast, highlands, and the eastern slopes of the Andes. In exchange for their products, the coastal Indians obtained coca leaves, to be chewed with lime as a narcotic, allaying

M. D. C. Crawford, a distinguished authority on textiles, contributed to the catalogue an introduction and technical descriptions.

The exhibition will be shown in a number of museums. Among those included in the schedule, which started in September, are the following: The Commercial Museum, Philadelphia; the Wadsworth Atheneum, Hartford; the Worcester Art Museum; the Buffalo Museum of Science; the Museum of Cranbrook Academy of Art; the William Rockhill Nelson Gallery of Art, Kansas City; the Brooks Memorial Art Gallery, Memphis, and the Person Hall Art Gallery, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.



Courtesy of Textile Museum

PERUVIAN TEXTILE

This is one of fifty pre-Spanish Peruvian fabrics selected from the famous collection of the Textile Museum of the District of Columbia to form a traveling exhibition. Peruvian textiles date from 300 or 400 A.D. to the early 16th century.

fatigue on long journeys and in the fields; hardwoods; feathers of tropical birds of the Amazon basin; gold, silver, and copper from the highlands, and wool.

The domesticated llama and alpaca were

the primary source of wool. These animals were raised in large numbers by the highland Indians, who also hunted the vicuña, a smaller, wild relative of the other surviving American members of the camel family.

Llamas and alpacas were clipped like sheep; the wool of the vicuña was most precious, since it is the finest and softest, as well as the shortest, of the three, and was obtainable only by hunting and killing the vicuñas. The coastal valleys did not afford pasture for the llama and alpaca; all the wool used so profusely in the coastal textiles was therefore imported from the highlands.

The best known early coastal centers of Andean civilization were in the north, near the modern city of Trujillo, where early textiles are, unfortunately, not well preserved; and in the Nazca valley and in the vicinity of Pisco, on the south central coast. The great cemetery of Paracas, in the latter region, has produced quantities of the finest specimens of early weaving and embroidery.

Following the early coastal developments, highland influences in the style both of pottery and of textile designs are apparent on the coast. Many designs are almost identical with those found in bas-relief stone sculpture and on pottery at the site of Tiahuanaco, near the shore of Lake Titicaca, in Bolivia. Specimens showing this influence are often referred to as "Coast-Tiahuanaco."

Later, probably about 1000 A.D., prior to the conquest of the area by the highland Incas, small kingdoms, dominated by hereditary rulers, grew up in the most favorable valleys on the coast. Great cities, such as Chan-Chan, in the north near Trujillo, and Pachacamac near Lima, the modern capital of Peru, attracted traders and pilgrims from great distances. From this time on, local styles in textiles are distinguished less easily than those of earlier periods. The Inca conquest and domination of the entire coastal Andean area, with the imposition of political

control, and of the state religion of the Inca, probably had relatively little effect on the daily life of the ordinary coastal Indian, and are not greatly reflected in the material culture, particularly the textiles of the coast. The Inca Empire, split by civil war at the time of Pizarro's arrival, fell rapidly to the Spanish.

The cities and towns of the later coastal Indians were extensive groupings of adobe (sun-dried clay) buildings and plazas often laid out in wards surrounded by high walls. The ruins of Chan-Chan, capital of the Chimu Kingdom, cover an area of eleven square miles.

Great terraced platform mounds and pyramids were built as temple structures. The drab adobe brick was relieved by extensive use of fresco in bright colors, and walls were frequently covered with bas-relief decoration in painted clay.

Pavilions of wood, cane, and cloth added

to the color of these busy centers, now largely buried in wind-blown sand.

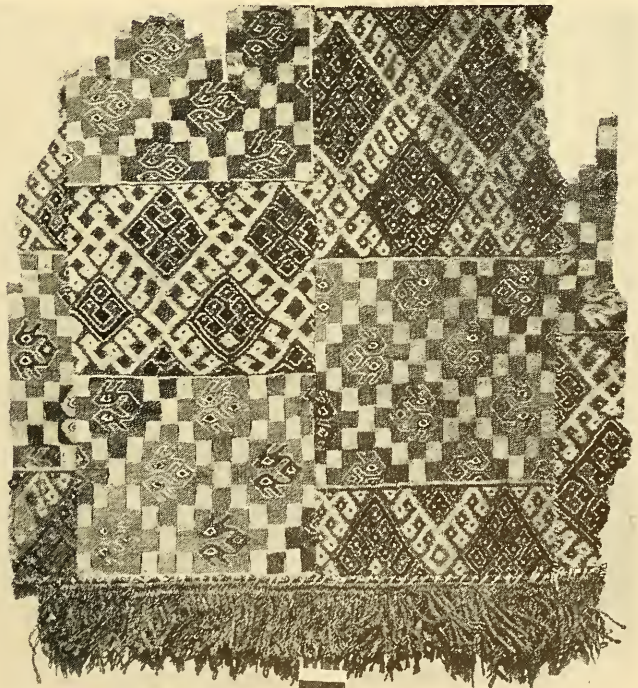
Cemeteries are found in the desert near all centers of population. Graves in the completely dry soil and sand have been extraordinarily preserved in all but the northernmost area of the coast. Burial customs varied in time and with locality, but most bodies were wrapped in greater or lesser quantities of cloth to form bundles, sometimes decorated with a mask to represent a human being. In the bundles many objects of wood, bone, stone, and metal, and smaller textile pieces, such as coca bags, belts, head bands, and other articles of clothing are found.

Food offerings and quantities of pottery were also placed with the mummy bundles in the graves.

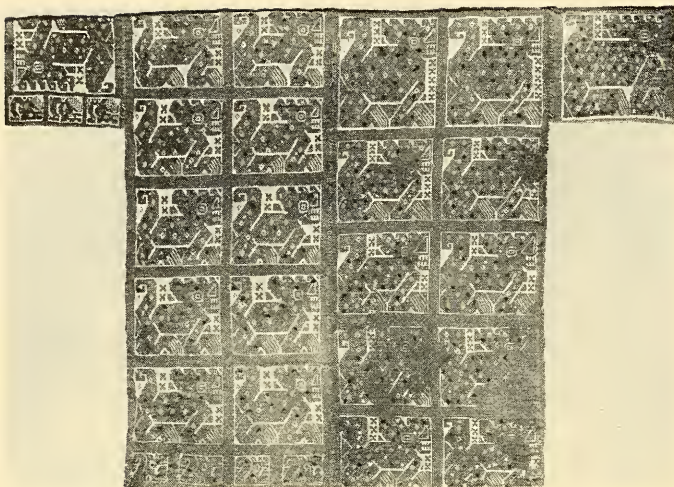
The dry climate has preserved for the archeologist, and for those interested in the textile art, one of the greatest textile productions in history. As do all man-made

FRAGMENT, PROBABLY PART OF A SHIRT

The fineness of the cotton and woolen threads, the variety of dyes, and the sophistication of patterns of Peruvian textiles reflect the long period of development of the Andean civilization.



Courtesy of Textile Museum



SHIRT IN AN ANIMAL
DESIGN, PROBABLY
PUMAS

Ancient Peruvian textiles are among the finest in the world with respect to technical virtuosity and perfection of design and color.

Courtesy of Textile Museum

objects, these fabrics reflect the culture and environment that produced them. Materials, wool and cotton, frequently in combination, reflect the wealth of resources available to the Indians. Cotton cloth was made in many other parts of the New World, but only in the Andes were fine wools and cotton to be had at once. Technically the fabrics are unexcelled. All known hand-weaving techniques are represented, as well as a great variety of needlework, embroidery, brocading, netting, lacework, and appliqué featherwork. The hand-spun yarns and threads of wool and cotton used in the fine cloths are of the highest quality. This skill, variety, and imagination, in combination with sheer technical virtuosity, reflect the long period of development of the Andean civilization.

Precision and color mark the styles of the various periods and localities. A wealth of inorganic and organic dyes made possible a great variety of color combinations. Design, sometimes naturalistic or depictive, is frequently highly conventionalized. In recognizable forms there is emphasis on the puma (mountain lion), so important in Andean religion and mythology, and the fish and plant life of the coast. The beings, human,

or human with animal attributes, in some cases probably represent mythical conceptions—demons, deities, or spirits, or men in the guise of such beings participating in elaborate ceremonies. Many of the figures, in both pottery and textile designs, can be discerned and analyzed, but the full significance of most has been lost with the disappearance of the culture that inspired them.

Geometric design, in a variety of pleasing forms, was used for its own decorative effect, to fill spaces and to form borders. Intricate combinations of depictive and geometric patterns in alternating position and repetitive color sequence often require study for full appreciation, but as in other sophisticated styles, effect does not depend upon analysis of detail.

These early fabrics of coastal Peru are the work of a people remote in space and time, alien in culture to contemporary North America, yet whose collateral descendants inhabit the Andes today. Regardless of whatever technical, artistic, or historical aspects of these fabrics may interest one particularly, they are surely indicative of the high abilities of the Andean Indians of the past, and of the potentialities of the same people in the future.

The Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Continental Peace and Security

Program

AT the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held on August 29, 1945, the members were informed that the Government of Brazil, acting in accordance with the understanding reached by the chiefs of delegations of the American Republics at the recent United Nations Conference in San Francisco, had extended invitations to the Governments of the American Republics to send representatives to Rio de Janeiro for the purpose of drawing up a treaty to give conventional form to the principles embodied in the Act of Chapultepec, signed at Mexico City on March 6 of this year.¹ The Governing Board approved the suggestion of the Brazilian Government that the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Continental Peace and Security begin its sessions in Rio de Janeiro on October 20, 1945. The Act of Chapultepec provides for mutual assistance in the event of aggression against any one of the American republics, whether by an American or by a non-American country. By the terms of the Act its provisions were to govern only during the war.

At the same meeting the Board was requested to consider the program and regulations of the Conference, and a special committee was appointed for this purpose. The committee was directed to consider the suggestion of the representative of Nicaragua that at the forthcoming Conference advantage be taken of the anticipated presence of representatives of all the American Republics to give further consideration to the change in organization of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union con-

templated by Article 3 of Resolution IX of the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace—that is, that the Board be constituted by ambassadors *ad hoc*.

On September 13 the Board approved the recommendations of the special committee, and expressed its full concurrence with the suggestion of the Brazilian Government that the program of the Conference be the preparation of an inter-American treaty of reciprocal assistance, to give permanent form to the principles embodied in the Act of Chapultepec.

Since several Governments had manifested the desire that the question of the organization of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union receive further consideration, and since the Ninth International Conference of American States is to prepare a basic charter on the organization of the inter-American system, the special committee suggested and the Board agreed:

(a) That the members of the Governing Board, who so desire, either at the next meeting of the Board or in communications to the Director General, should express the views of their respective Governments with regard to the contemplated change in the organization of the Board.

(b) That these views be transmitted to the Governments as well as to the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Continental Peace and Security, for such action as may be deemed appropriate with respect to this question.

The regulations for the Conference proposed by the Special Committee were also approved.

¹ See BULLETIN, May 1945, p. 254.

The New Constitution of Ecuador

ON MARCH 6, 1945, Ecuador's new Constitution was officially promulgated, to replace the one decreed by the National Assembly of 1906-07, as amended thereafter. The new document embodies many changes and elaborates in considerable detail many points mentioned only in general terms in the earlier one. Some of the outstanding changes and new provisions are summarized herewith.

First of all, the Constitution states that sovereignty rests in the people; that the national territory, continental and insular, is inalienable and irreducible; and that sovereignty is exercised in the national territory, territorial waters, and the air above them. The Government is republican, elective, and responsible. Spanish is the official language, although Quechua and other native languages are recognized as elements of national culture. The Republic adheres to the principles of international law and proclaims the principle of cooperation and good neighborliness among states and the solution of international controversies by juridical methods. Within the world community of nations and for the defense of their common territorial, economic, and cultural interests, Ecuador will cooperate especially with the Ibero-American nations, to which it is united by ties of solidarity and interdependence, origin and culture.

NATIONALITY.—Ecuadoreans by birth include those born in the national territory; those born abroad of native Ecuadorean father or mother who come to reside in the Republic or express their desire to be Ecuadoreans; and those born abroad of native Ecuadorean father or mother when either of the latter is occupying an official post or

has been exiled for political reasons, so long as they do not express any contrary desire. Ecuadoreans by naturalization are those to whom citizenship papers are granted according to law or to whom Congress grants the privilege for service to the nation. Nationality is lost for treason, through cancellation of citizenship papers, and for becoming naturalized in another country, except in Spain or the Ibero-American nations. Likewise, Ibero-Americans and Spaniards will be considered as Ecuadoreans when they live in Ecuador and express such a desire, and will not lose their nationality of origin.

CITIZENSHIP.—All literate Ecuadoreans, men and women, over eighteen years of age, are citizens. Citizenship is lost for fraudulent insolvency, for conviction of violation of the Constitution by public officials and employees; for crimes against the right of suffrage, such as the buying and selling of votes, falsification, etc.; for loss of nationality; and in other cases specified in the Constitution or by law. Citizenship may be suspended for judicial interdiction, for just and legal sentences, and for not presenting accounts of public funds or for misusing such funds.

SUFFRAGE.—The new Constitution provides for direct and indirect elections, according to law. Effective representation of minority groups will be guaranteed by law.

A Supreme Electoral Tribunal is created, composed of a justice of the Supreme Court and a member of the Tribunal of Constitutional Guarantees, elected by those bodies; two citizens elected by Congress; and three representatives of the political parties, one each for the left, the right, and the center. Members must be native Ecuadoreans, enjoy

full citizenship rights, be at least 25 years old, and will hold office, which is compulsory and without compensation, for two years.

The Tribunal's duties are to regulate and supervise elections; act on complaints of fraud or miscounts in elections; order the proper legal action against any guilty of such acts; and issue orders for the armed forces and the police to cooperate in guaranteeing freedom and legality of suffrage.

THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.—The 1945 Constitution introduces considerable changes in the legislative branch of the Government. It establishes a unicameral legislature in place of the former bicameral body. The Congress will now consist of a single Chamber of Deputies made up of members elected for a two-year term by direct, secret, popular vote, in a proportion beginning with three deputies for each province having up to 150,000 inhabitants and increasing by one deputy for each additional 75,000 inhabitants. Each of the eastern provinces will elect two deputies as long as their population is less than 150,000, and the Galapagos Islands will elect one deputy.

Another innovation is that in addition to the elected deputies, certain additional so-called "functional" ones are to be elected, according to methods prescribed by law, for special professional and business groups, as follows: four by the universities (two for professors and two for students); one by teachers in public normal and secondary schools and in special education; one by the teachers in private secondary schools; two by public primary school teachers; one by primary teachers in private schools; one by the press, cultural institutions, academies, and scientific societies; two by industry; three by agriculture; two by commerce and trade; four by workers; two by campesinos; one by Indian organizations; and one by the armed forces. These "functional" deputies

are to be elected, insofar as possible, so that the highlands and the coastal regions will be equally represented.

The Constitution also stresses the fact that the deputies will represent the nation and should therefore act in a national rather than a local or specialized group sense.

The Congress will meet annually in the capital on August 10 for a 90-day session, which by resolution of a majority may be extended 30 days. Special sessions may be called by the President of the Republic or by the President of the Congress at the request of a majority of members.

The powers and duties of Congress are minutely detailed in the new Constitution and include, among others, passing, amending, repealing, and interpreting laws, decrees, orders and resolutions; levying taxes; approving or disapproving treaties and international agreements; legislating on national finance, credit, and the investment of public funds; recognizing and taking steps to service the public debt; outlining the boundaries of political subdivisions; and deciding upon a declaration of war when it may be necessary for national defense, since "Ecuador repudiates it (war) as an instrument of international policy."

The initiative for a law may be taken by any deputy, the President of the Republic, the Permanent Legislative Committee, and, in civil, penal, legal, and judicial matters, by the Supreme Court. If the President does not approve of a law, he may return it to Congress with his objections within eight days, and Congress may then accept or reject his suggestions.

The Constitution creates a Permanent Legislative Committee composed of the President of the Congress, three attorneys representing the right, the left and the center, to be named by Congress preferably from among its members; two representatives of the President; and one representative each

of the Supreme Court, employers, and the Confederation of Labor, the latter to be an expert in social legislation. The Committee's functions are to draft laws and decrees; codify laws; supply information on bills submitted by the President; and, when Congress is not in session, to pass decree-laws of an economic nature when necessity demands.

THE EXECUTIVE POWER.—A slight change was made in eligibility for the presidency. The candidate must be a native Ecuadorean, in full possession of citizenship rights, at least 40 years of age, and will be elected by direct secret vote for a four-year term, as before; the change is that a president becomes eligible for reelection after a lapse of four years, as compared to eight under the former Constitution. No one may be elected to the presidency who is a blood relative of the incumbent president to the fourth degree of relationship or a relative by marriage to the second degree. In case of death, resignation, physical or mental incapacity, or abandonment of office, the president's successor will be appointed in the following order: the President of the Congress, the Vice Presidents of Congress in the order of their election, and the Minister of the Interior.

THE JUDICIARY POWER.—Age requirements for members of the Supreme Court are raised in the new Constitution. A judge of the Supreme Court must be a native Ecuadorean, must have engaged in the legal profession for at least ten years, and be over 40 years of age, in place of the former 35. The judges are elected by Congress for four years and are eligible to reelection.

A new article of the Constitution provides that for the defense of Indian communities and workers who lack economic means the State must hire attorneys, to be named by the respective Superior Courts from three candidates nominated by the organizations concerned.

ADMINISTRATION.—In the matter of local

administration, the Constitution provides for councils in each provincial capital, charged with carrying on public service, public works, and the coordination of provincial and municipal action for the common good. A similar set-up is provided for parish councils, and both kinds of councils are given authority to join temporarily or permanently with other councils for the achievement of communal or regional objectives.

Another section of the new Constitution pertains to the national budget. The budget is to be fixed annually and all ordinary revenues are to accrue to one general fund for ordinary expenses. Borrowing to cover permanent administrative activities is expressly forbidden, and it is further required that at least 20 percent of regular federal income be allocated to public education. Budget allocations to municipalities and provinces cannot be transferred to other purposes, and the Minister of the Treasury and the Comptroller General will be held responsible for any violation of this regulation.

To oversee the proper collection and expenditure of government funds, an autonomous Office of the Comptroller General is created, the head of which will be appointed by Congress. An Office of the Superintendent of Banks is also created, directed by a Superintendent named by Congress.

INDIVIDUAL GUARANTEES.—The new Constitution offers all the usual individual guarantees of inviolability of life and personal security, equality before the law, privilege of the writ of habeas corpus, freedom of conscience, speech, the press, and the right to petition, freedom of trade and industry, the right to engage in professions, the right of assembly, right of suffrage, and others.

SOCIAL ASPECTS.—Four entirely new and extensive sections of the Constitution pertain to social, cultural, and economic rights and guarantees. First of all, with reference to the family, the document designates the

State as the protector of the family, the institution of matrimony, and motherhood. Divorce is permitted, and illegitimate children are given the same rights as legitimate ones with respect to rearing, education, and inheritance. Protection of the physical, mental, and moral welfare of all children is guaranteed, and it becomes the duty of the State to provide family and economic aid for needy children.

Free public education is a function of the State, although private education that conforms to laws and official programs is also guaranteed. All education, public or private, is to be oriented toward helping the child to become a socially useful element of the nation, inspired with the spirit of democracy. Primary education is compulsory, and in schools located in predominantly Indian communities Quechua or other respective Indian languages will be used as well as Spanish. The annual education budget must provide scholarships for children of skilled and unskilled workers and campesinos.

Another section of the Constitution pertains to national and individual economy. The State guarantees the rights of property, prohibits all confiscation, and permits expropriation for the public good only following proper indemnification. National economic life is to be regulated in such manner as to obtain maximum advantage and a just distribution of the nation's wealth. The cultivation and use of land is considered a social duty of the landowner and the holding of undue amounts of idle land is forbidden. The State is to give economic and technical support to the development of agricultural cooperatives. Direct, inalienable, and imprescriptible domain over all mineral deposits is vested in the State. Property rights in discoveries, inventions, and scientific, literary, and artistic works are guaranteed.

Work is qualified as a social duty under

special protection of the law. The State will use all resources within its reach to provide work for the unemployed. The fulfillment of labor contracts is compulsory for both employers and employees, and a minimum wage sufficient to meet personal and family requirements must be paid all workers. Equal wages are to be paid without distinction as to sex, race, nationality, or religion. An 8-hour day and 44-hour week, annual paid vacations, and pay for weekly days of rest and legal holidays are also established. Working hours for night shifts must be shorter than for day shifts, the wage must be higher, and women and children may not be employed in night work. The actual working period for miners is fixed at 6 hours, with a total working day of not more than 7 hours. Dismissals without cause are prohibited, and the right of workers to unionize and to strike is recognized. Special protection is provided for the working mother and child labor is regulated as to age, hours, and kind of labor. The Constitution provides for health and security measures for workers in business, industry, and agriculture, and it is further established that money owed by an employer to a worker for salaries, wages, indemnities, and pensions is a prime obligation, taking precedence even over mortgage debts.

The Constitution states that social welfare and assistance are unavoidable services of the State, and includes under this category social security, public health, public assistance, and the construction of healthful, low-cost homes for workers. Responsibility for the latter devolves upon the State, municipalities, and social security institutions, while employers in agriculture and mining are obliged to furnish their laborers with decent living quarters and conveniences.

OTHER PROVISIONS.—The Constitution is the supreme law of the republic. Only Congress may declare a law, decree, order, treaty,

or other public regulation to be unconstitutional. The 1945 Constitution will not be open to amendment during the first four years after its promulgation.

To insure full compliance with the Constitution and with laws pertaining especially to constitutional guarantees, a Tribunal of Constitutional Guarantees, with jurisdiction

in all the republic, is established, composed of three deputies elected by Congress, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, a representative of the President of the Republic, the Attorney General, a representative of the workers, and two citizens elected by Congress.

—D. M. T.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin Ameri-

can countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

This list will be concluded as of V-J Day, September 2, 1945.

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR ⁸ , ¹² STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	¹ Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	² Bulgaria ³ Rumania ⁴ Hungary	
Argentina	⁵ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia	1-28-42	1-28-42	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43	⁶ 4-7-43
Brazil	1-28-42	1-28-42	(¹)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	⁸ G-2-12-45	⁸ 2-12-45 ¹⁴ 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic	11-26-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Ecuador	1-29-42	1-29-42	⁹ 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (¹⁰)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama	1-13-42	12-12-41	¹¹ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	¹² G-2-11-45	¹² 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States	(¹³)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	⁸ 2-14-45	⁸ 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

PART XLIII

ARGENTINA

178. (Correction) Presidential Decree No. 24,099.

215a. February 3, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2,261, fixing sales prices for alcohol denaturants. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 1, 1945.)

221a. February 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,377, explaining that the exemption of rubber tires from import duties and internal taxation established by Presidential Decree No. 10,274 of April 22, 1944 (see Argentina 115a, BULLETIN, April 1945) can be applied to tires of Argentine manufacture only when they are brought back into the country after having been taken out with official authorization. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 2, 1945.)

224a. February 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3,727, including metallurgical coke in the products covered by the price-fixing provisions of Law No. 12,591 of September 8, 1939, and fixing maximum sales prices for it. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 15, 1945.)

225a. February 22, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2,728, creating within the Department of Industry and Commerce a Commission for the Procurement, Supply, and Rationing of Electric Power, and fixing its organization and functions. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 27, 1945.)

225b. February 23, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4,152, repealing Decrees Nos. 65,006 of June 13, 1940 and 124,363 of July 7, 1942 (see Argentina 20c, BULLETIN, December 1942), which prohibited the sending of Argentine merchant vessels to certain European and North American ports, but continuing in effect other provisions relative to the use of boats belonging to belligerent nations immobilized in Argentine ports, including Decree No. 5,627 of August 16, 1943 (see Argentina 87s, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, February 27, 1945.)

226a. February 28, 1945. Resolution No. 920, Ministry of Agriculture, fixing prices for the current year for inspected flax and wheat seed from the 1943-44 and 1944-45 crops, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 5, 1945.)

227a. March 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 5,348, giving the force of law to Presidential Decree No. 24,099 of September 5, 1944 (see Argen-

tina 178, BULLETIN, January 1945 and above), which established the rules of operation of the National Textile Bag Factory. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 24, 1945.)

227b. March 20, 1945. Resolution No. 4,209, Department of Industry and Commerce, authorizing temporary increases in the prices of Portland cement fixed by Presidential Decree No. 32,635 of December 4, 1944 (see Argentina 202, BULLETIN, May 1945); providing for a corresponding increase in workers' pay; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 28, 1945.)

227c. March 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6,650, making extensive provisions for supplying sacks for the domestic potato crop, and suspending the application of Presidential Decree No. 15,848 of June 15, 1944 (see Argentina 134, BULLETIN, November 1944) and other previous legislation in so far as it contradicts the present decree. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 6, 1945.)

227d. March 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6,713, fixing ceiling prices for the Federal Capital for specified varieties of dried fish used as cod substitutes since the war in Europe made impossible the large-scale importation of cod; and forbidding the use of the name "cod" applied to other varieties of fish. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 5, 1945.)

227e. March 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6,904, authorizing the Y.P.F. to grant supplementary quotas of gasoline for the current four-month period to taxis, rental autos, ambulances, and buses, and to put on sale supplementary ration stamps in the automobile category to the amount of 3,000,000 liters of gasoline, the proceeds of which sale are to be distributed among charitable institutions in the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 5, 1945.)

227f. March 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 6,945, accepting the invitation of the 20 American Republics participating in the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace and adhering to the Final Act of that conference (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 182, BULLETIN, May 1945); declaring the existence of a state of war between the Argentine Republic and the Empire of Japan and likewise between the Argentine Republic and Germany, as an ally of Japan; and declaring that pertinent measures are to be

taken immediately to put an end to any activities of persons or companies of whatever nationality which may endanger the security of the State, interfere with the war effort of the United Nations, or threaten the peace and security of the American nations. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 28, 1945.)

227g. March 31, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,032, placing all firms operating in Argentina which are representatives or branches of firms established in Japan or Germany or countries occupied by them under the total control of the Administrative Council created by the Regulations of Presidential Decree No. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 which were approved by Presidential Decree No. 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see Argentina 19f₁ and 192, BULLETIN, September and February 1945); providing that once the interests which residents of Argentina hold in these companies are covered, the companies' assets shall be used for the payment of indemnities for damages suffered during the present war by national assets, Argentine citizens, or firms belonging to Argentine citizens (see Presidential Decree No. 3,959 of February 20, 1945, published as Argentina 222, BULLETIN, August 1945); providing that credit, titles, or securities in Argentina belonging to Axis subjects or companies established in Japan or Germany or branches of such companies in other countries or property of any kind belonging to anyone resident in the country whose activities threaten the security of the State, the war effort of the United Nations, or the peace and security of the American nations shall be placed under the control, custody, or administration of the Administrative Council; and making further provisions to control enterprises in any way connected with firms established in Japan or Germany or countries occupied by them. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

228a. April 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,035, confiscating all real and personal property in Argentina belonging to the German and Japanese States except the real property and furnishings used by their diplomatic representatives. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

228b. April 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,036, interning the former diplomatic and consular representatives of the Japanese Empire, members of their families, and administrative and service personnel of Japanese nationality attached to such representatives. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

228c. April 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,037, declaring the former crew of the German warship Graf Spee prisoners of war. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

228d. April 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,058, creating a special register of nationals of enemy countries resident in Argentina; requiring such aliens to turn over immediately to the police all firearms, explosives, radio transmitters, etc., and to declare any effects in their possession or custody which may be used for war purposes, as well as all property they possess both within the country and abroad; establishing control of their travel and use of telecommunications services; providing for separate registration of persons born in enemy countries who are now citizens of Argentina or of one of the United Nations; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 7, 1945.)

230a. April 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,228, adding typewriters to the products covered by the price-fixing provisions of Law No. 12,591 of September 8, 1939; fixing ceiling prices for used and renovated typewriters; calling for declarations of stocks; regulating the sale and transfer of typewriters; and dissolving the Typewriter Rationing Committee created by Resolution No. 12, Ministry of Agriculture, of January 14, 1943 (see Argentina 51, BULLETIN, May 1943). (*Boletín Oficial*, April 12, 1945.)

230b. April 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,365, declaring that Argentine citizens who present proof of having served for at least one year in the armed forces of a country fighting the Axis powers shall be considered as having fulfilled the obligation of military service imposed by Argentine laws. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 16, 1945.)

230c. April 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,399, fixing ceiling prices throughout the country for bread sold at the counter, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 12, 1945.)

230d. April 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,527, prescribing regulations for the execution of Presidential Decree No. 7,058 of April 2, 1945 (see 228d above). (*Boletín Oficial*, April 12, 1945.)

231a. April 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,759, placing 100,000 tons of wheat at the disposal of the Government of Italy to help alleviate the precarious food situation of the Italian people. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

231*b*. April 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7,760, empowering the Administrative Council to provide, when it thinks necessary, for the blocking of funds, titles, securities, or other assets of the officials or employees of the companies referred to in Presidential Decrees Nos. 122,712 of June 15, 1942 and 30,301 of November 7, 1944 (see Argentina 19*f*₁ and 192, BULLETIN, September and February 1945); providing that when in the opinion of the Executive Power the activities of any real or juridical person resident in the country constitute a threat to the security of the Republic, the war effort of the United Nations, or the peace and security of the American nations, the Administrative Council shall have the funds, securities, and other assets of that person blocked. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

BOLIVIA

25. August 28, 1943. (Mentioned in *Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, December 1944, p. 121.)

35. (Correction) March 30, 1944. (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, December 1944, p. 85.)

36*b*. May 30, 1944. Presidential Decree canceling until further notice all authorizations to Axis subjects to enter or leave the country. (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, December 1944, p. 106.)

36*c*. July 31, 1944. Presidential Decree fixing export duties for specified grades of rubber. (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, Sucre, December 1944, p. 115.)

36*d*. July 31, 1944. Presidential Decree establishing the composition, duties, and procedures of the Economic Defense Board created by Executive Decree of April 30, 1943 (see Bolivia 16*a*, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Revista de Estudios Jurídicos, Políticos y Sociales*, December 1944, p. 120.)

46*a*. January 3, 1945. Law fixing a graduated scale of reduction on rents of 5,000 bolivianos a month or less and making other provisions concerning rent control and evictions. (*El Diario*, La Paz, January 22, 1945.)

48. March 29, 1945. Supreme Decree declaring that the uninterrupted production of minerals indispensable to the war effort of the United Nations is of imperative necessity to the country; providing that the State shall take over the direction of mines which stop work; and making extensive

provisions for such intervention. (*Minería Boliviana*, La Paz, March 1945.)

BRAZIL

185*a*. March 8, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7366, providing for an increase in the capital of banks existing when Decree-Law No. 6419 of April 13, 1944 went into effect; such increase being allowed to the minimum limits set by Decree-Law No. 6541 of May 20, 1944. (See Brazil 99 and 101*i*, BULLETIN, July and October 1944.) (*Diário Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

185*b*. March 10, 1945. Service Order No. 50, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, creating a special commission to study the causes of scarcities of secondary materials (glass containers, corks, labels, etc.) used in the manufacture of pharmaceutical products. (*Diário Oficial*, March 12, 1945.)

185*c*. March 16, 1945. Order No. 361, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, excluding certain raw materials for the manufacture of medicines from the quota system fixed by Order No. 252 of July 31, 1944 (see Brazil 109, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, March 17, 1945.)

185*d*. March 16, 1945. Order No. 362, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, providing further for the administration of the Pharmaceutical Convention as fixed by Order No. 345 of February 7, 1945 (see Brazil 177, BULLETIN, July 1945). (*Diário Oficial*, March 17, 1945.)

185*e*. March 22, 1945. Order No. 363, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, subjecting pine knots to export control but placing no control over the exportation of resin derived therefrom. (*Diário Oficial*, March 23, 1945.)

185*f*. March 26, 1945. Order No. 364, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, subjecting rice and mandioca flour to export control. (*Diário Oficial*, March 27, 1945.)

185*g*. March 28, 1945. Order No. 365, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, reducing maximum prices of cottonseed and its derivatives and by-products. (*Diário Oficial*, April 6, 1945.)

186*a*. April 16, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7466, amending Decree-Law No. 6739 of July 26, 1944, which froze real property rents (see Brazil 108, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, April 18, 1945.)

186*b*. April 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 18,380, ratifying the treaty of friendship between Brazil and China of August 20, 1943 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 109, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diário Oficial*, April 19, 1945.)

186*c*. April 24, 1945. Order No. 367, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, subjecting beans to export control. (*Diário Oficial*, April 25, 1945.)

186*d*. May 7, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7530, fixing the date of the return to national territory of the soldiers of the Brazilian Expeditionary Force for the cessation of special pay privileges accorded them by Decree-Law No. 6497 of May 13, 1944, and by other specified legislation (see Brazil 101*c*, BULLETIN, October 1944). (*Diário Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

186*e*. May 7, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7532, declaring May 8, 1945, to be a national holiday in celebration of the end of the war in Europe. (*Diário Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

186*f*. May 17, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7553, transferring to the Agreements Control Commission in Washington the duties and functions concerning control of the rubber industry which were given to the Industrial Protection Section of the Office of the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization by Decree-Law No. 5428 of April 27, 1943 (see Brazil 76*z*₁₂, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diário Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

186*g*. May 21, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7575, repealing Decree-Law No. 3175 of April 7, 1941, which restricted the entrance of foreigners into Brazil, inasmuch as the political reasons for such restrictions no longer exist. (*Diário Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

186*h*. May 21, 1945. Order No. 370, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, reducing prices for specified kinds of soap and making other provisions pertaining to their manufacture and distribution. (*Diário Oficial*, May 22, 1945.)

186*i*. May 28, 1945. Order No. 374, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, suspending as of June 1, 1945, the execution of Order No. 326 of December 23, 1944, which fixed maximum prices for mineral waters (see Brazil 157, BULLETIN, May 1945). (*Diário Oficial*, May 29, 1945.)

186*j*. May 31, 1945. Order No. 376, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, exempting mandioca flour from the export restrictions imposed

by Orders Nos. 356 of March 6, 1945 and 364 of March 26, 1945 (see Brazil 185, BULLETIN, July 1945 and 185*f* above). (*Diário Oficial*, June 1, 1945; correction in *Diário Oficial*, June 4, 1945.)

186*k*. June 2, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7606, repealing Decree-Law No. 5165 of December 31, 1942, which provided for the transfer of certain reserve enlisted men to active service (see Brazil 67, BULLETIN, July and August 1943). (*Diário Oficial*, June 5, 1945.)

187. June 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 18,811. (*Diário Oficial*, June 6, 1945.)

188. June 9, 1945. Order No. 378, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, abolishing or transferring to permanent agencies various divisions of the Office of the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization (Supply Service, Rationing Service, and Liquid Fuel Distribution and Rationing Service). (*Diário Oficial*, June 11, 1945.)

189. June 9, 1945. Order No. 379, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, fixing new prices for jute or similar domestic fiber bags, textiles, and twine. (*Diário Oficial*, June 11, 1945.)

190. June 11, 1945. Decree-Law No. 7626, repealing Decree-Law No. 5248 of February 15, 1943 (see Brazil 69*b*, BULLETIN, August 1943), regarding the movement and servicing of merchant vessels in Brazilian ports. (*Diário Oficial*, June 13, 1945.)

191. June 11, 1945. Order No. 382, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, transferring to the Director General of the Federal Foreign Trade Council the authority to control exports and imports of foodstuffs. (*Diário Oficial*, June 15, 1945.)

192. June 15, 1945. Order No. 383, Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, requisitioning all stocks of cottonseed cake and meal in processing plants, to meet cattle feeding requirements, and regulating the supply of such products that may be used for fuel. (*Diário Oficial*, June 16, 1945.)

CHILE

123*a*. August 26, 1944. Decree No. 2,371, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing prices for certain types of women's shoes. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

136. November 20, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 4,459, amending Decree No. 1,420 of March 31, 1944 (see Chile 79*o*, BULLETIN, July 1945) in regard to certain customs exemptions for ma-

chinery imported for specified new industries. (*Diario Oficial*, December 9, 1944.)

137. November 24, 1944. Decree No. 3,203, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,573 of September 15, 1944 (see Chile 128, BULLETIN, July 1945) to fix new maximum wholesale prices for condensed milk. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

138. January 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 244, reducing basic rates of import duty on crude oil, Diesel oil, gasoline, coffee, sugar, wood pulp, and certain other articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1945.)

139. February 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 932, suspending for the year 1945 with respect to foreign debt bonds issued in Swiss francs the regulation that interest payments not collected by the end of the year of accrual be added to funds for redemption or amortization. (*Diario Oficial*, March 3, 1945.)

140. February 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 988, depriving of gasoline rations all bus owners not complying with Article 18 of Decree No. 3,329 of July 6, 1943 (see Chile 59d, BULLETIN, February 1944) in regard to registration of vehicles. (*Diario Oficial*, March 16, 1945.)

141. February 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 338, approving the regulations of Law No. 520 of August 30, 1932, which created the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, as amended by Law No. 7,747 of December 23, 1943 (see Chile 76c, BULLETIN, June 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

142. March 8, 1945. Decree No. 582, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing a new maximum wholesale price for the product of a specified cement factory and making other provisions for increasing the available supply of cement. (*Diario Oficial*, March 9, 1945.)

143. March 22, 1945. Decree No. 709, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum prices for a new type of women's shoes and regulating their distribution. (*Diario Oficial*, April 10, 1945.)

144. April 4, 1945. Decree No. 736, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale prices for sisal hemp for binders and reapers. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1945.)

145. April 5, 1945. Decree No. 752, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, repealing Decree No. 802 of May 5, 1943 (see Chile 56b_{7a},

BULLETIN, February 1944), fixing new maximum wholesale prices for candles, making new requirements for their manufacture, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, April 18, 1945.)

146. April 11, 1945. Decree No. 859, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,371 of August 26, 1944 (see 123a above) to fix new prices for certain types of women's shoes. (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

147. April 12, 1945. Decree No. 876, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 2,212 (see Chile 112, BULLETIN, January 1945) to fix higher maximum prices for yerba maté from Brazil. (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

148. April 17, 1945. Decree No. 891, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 3,203 of Nov. 24, 1944 (see 137 above) to fix higher maximum wholesale and retail prices for condensed milk. (*Diario Oficial*, April 26, 1945.)

149. April 25, 1945. Decree No. 2,037d, Departmental Subsistence and Price Commissariat of Santiago, fixing maximum retail prices for candles in Santiago to conform with Decree No. 752, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, April 5, 1945 (see 145 above). (*Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1945.)

COLOMBIA

150b. December 14, 1944. Resolution No. 670, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 567 of September 13, 1944 (see Colombia 143, BULLETIN, February 1945) to fix new maximum prices for various sizes and kinds of construction lumber in Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, May 16, 1945.)

153. January 10, 1945. Resolution No. 10, National Price Control Office. (*Diario Oficial*, May 16, 1945.)

161. April 3, 1945. Resolution No. 196, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 141 of March 8, 1945 (see Colombia 159, BULLETIN, August 1945) to reestablish rationing of lard and vegetable fats in Bogotá. (*Diario Oficial*, May 21, 1945.)

162. April 12, 1945. Resolution No. 216, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 514 of August 21, 1944 (see Colombia 131, BULLETIN, January 1945) to fix new maximum prices for certain domestic cements, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 21, 1945.)

163. May 15, 1945. Resolution No. 303, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for a specified brand of cement. (*Diario Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

169*a*. June 15, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 31, ratifying the treaty of friendship of May 5, 1944 between Costa Rica and the Republic of China (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 143*a* below). (*La Gaceta*, June 16, 1945.)

190. June 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9, ruling that the provisions of Decrees Nos. 29 and 34 of September 13 and October 29, 1942 (see Costa Rica 47 and 55, BULLETIN, February and March 1943), prohibiting the circulation of United States currency, do not apply to payment of United States bank notes to the Government of Costa Rica. (*La Gaceta*, June 21, 1945.)

191. June 14, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 41, amending and amplifying Legislative Decrees Nos. 26, 11, 49, and 43 of December 12, 1942, October 1 and December 28, 1943, and January 29, 1945 (see Costa Rica 60, 130, 149, and 182, BULLETIN, June 1943, February and May 1944, and May 1945), to prescribe procedure for confiscation of property of citizens of enemy nations and for indemnification therefor, to provide for certain exemptions, and to make other provisions. (*La Gaceta*, June 21, 1945.)

192. June 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 7, announcing the exchange of ratifications of the treaty of friendship of May 5, 1944 between Costa Rica and the Republic of China (see Costa Rica 169*a* above and Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 143*a* below). (*La Gaceta*, June 16, 1945.)

ECUADOR

99*a*. February 3, 1945. Declaration of the Government of Ecuador declaring the existence of a state of war between Ecuador and Japan as of December 7, 1941. (*Registro Oficial*, April 23, 1945.)

107. April 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 599, repealing specified articles of Presidential Decrees No. 936 of June 26, 1943 and No. 1,168 of August 5, 1943 (see Ecuador 53*d* and 57*a*, BULLETIN, December 1943 and April 1944), with reference to control of exchange and imports; and authorizing Ecuadorean diplomatic chiefs, consuls, vice consuls, and the financial counselor of the

Embassy in Washington to visé shipping documents on authorized shipments of agricultural, industrial, and highway implements and tools and on medicines. (*Registro Oficial*, April 21, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

113. June 11, 1945. Decree No. 97, National Constituent Assembly, authorizing the Executive Power to take such steps as it deems necessary to prevent the cornering of foodstuffs and other articles of prime necessity and the consequent rise in prices, and fixing penalties for infractions of the measures dictated. (*Diario Oficial*, June 15, 1945.)

HAITI

108. May 9, 1945. Decree-Law No. 500, ratifying the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation signed at Chicago on December 7, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171*a*, BULLETIN, June 1945). (*Le Moniteur*, May 24, 1945.)

109. May 12, 1945. Presidential proclamation on the occasion of the unconditional surrender of Germany to the Allied Nations. (*Le Moniteur*, May 14, 1945.)

110. May 25, 1945. Executive Order No. 523, repealing the orders of May 10, 1943 and September 25, 1943 (see Haiti 76*e* and 83, BULLETIN, December 1943 and April 1944), which designated certain areas as strategic zones. (*Le Moniteur*, May 28, 1945.)

111. June 5, 1945. Decree-Law No. 504, fixing export duties on sugar at a level aimed at equalizing production costs and export prices, and repealing all contrary legislation. (*Le Moniteur*, June 7, 1945.)

MEXICO

(Correction) Item 247*b* in BULLETIN, August 1945, should be numbered 247*a*.

(Correction) Item 288*f*, BULLETIN, July 1945, should be numbered 288*m*.

80*i*. September 2, 1942. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previous lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (*Diario Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

288*n*. February 19, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified mill in accordance with the decree

of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, January 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, June 20, 1945.)

297b. April 11, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing with regard to a specified firm the order of September 2, 1942 (see Mexico 80₁ above). (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1945.)

301a. June 5, 1945. Decree repealing the decree of January 28, 1943 (see Mexico 131, BULLETIN, May 1943), pertaining to the distribution of cargo space in coastwise shipping. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 11, 1945.)

301b. June 5, 1945. Decree extending for two more years the effectiveness of the decree of June 15, 1943 (see Mexico 173, BULLETIN, October 1943), with reference to restriction and regulation of expansion of the silk and rayon industry. (*Diario Oficial*, July 9, 1945.)

302a. June 13, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing the order of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 232a, BULLETIN, June 1944), insofar as it concerns a specified firm. (*Diario Oficial*, July 4, 1945.)

304. June 22, 1945. Resolution, Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit and the Chief of the Department of the Federal District, amending the prices established for certain cotton textiles and men's and boys' clothing by the resolution of March 6, 1945 (see Mexico 290, BULLETIN, June 1945). Effective three days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 13, 1945.)

305. June 28, 1945. Decree amending and supplementing the Emergency Law on Betting and Games of Chance of April 4, 1943 (see Mexico 142, BULLETIN, June 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, July 7, 1945.)

306. July 4, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, providing for the occupation of a specified property. (*Diario Oficial*, August 3, 1945.)

307. July 17, 1945. Decree supplementing with new provisions regarding fines for infringement a specified article of the decree of July 6, 1943, regarding the flour milling industry (see Mexico 181, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, July 28, 1945.)

308. July 18, 1945. Decree permitting the unlimited entrance and slaughter of cattle in Federal

District slaughterhouses, providing existing price regulations are observed. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 26, 1945.)

PANAMA

127. June 5, 1945. Decree No. 64, Office of Imports, Price, and Supply Control, repealing Decree No. 43 of March 1, 1944 (see Panama 105, BULLETIN, August 1944), and fixing new prices for gasoline in the cities of Panama, Colón, and their environs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 8, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

81a. April 6, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8025, amending, broadening, and clarifying the rent control system established by Decree-Law No. 3524 of April 29, 1944 (see Paraguay 55, BULLETIN, September 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 9, 1945.)

86. April 28, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8479, regulating Decree-Law No. 7867 of March 23, 1945, which established control over Axis properties (see Paraguay 79, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

87. April 28, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8477, placing specified commercial firms under the control fixed by Decree-Law No. 7867 of March 23, 1945, as regulated by Decree No. 8479 of April 28, 1945 (see Paraguay 79, BULLETIN, August and September 1945 and 86 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

88. April 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8485, fixing a basic price per ton for sugar of the 1945 crop. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

89. May 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8552, providing for the celebration of the Allied victory in Europe upon announcement of the cessation of hostilities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1945.)

90. May 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 8566, amending Art. 1 of Decree No. 8479 of April 28, 1945, with reference to the control of Axis properties (see Paraguay 86 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1945.)

PERU

145b. December 30, 1944. Law No. 10,141, authorizing the Executive Power to cancel all mining, irrigation, forest lands, public works,

and public service concessions granted to nationals of Axis countries. (*El Peruano*, June 6, 1945.)

147*b*. March 2, 1945. Law No. 10,193, amending and amplifying the provisions of Law No. 9952 of March 24, 1944 (see Peru 114, BULLETIN, August 1944), which made regulations for the expropriation and sale of property belonging to Axis subjects. (*El Peruano*, June 18, 1945.)

151. June 9, 1945. Supreme Resolution, making regulations for the importation, handling, and sale of penicillin; and providing that beginning July 15 sales prices for penicillin will be subject to current controls for pharmaceutical products in general. (*El Peruano*, June 16, 1945.)

152. June 9, 1945. Supreme Resolution, providing that as of July 15, the Office of the Inspector General of Pharmacy will authorize the importation of penicillin only when the price is not above one dollar per ampoule of 100,000 Oxford units. (*El Peruano*, June 16, 1945.)

153. June 12, 1945. Resolution, Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, approving Appendix No. 5 to the Official Price List for Pharmaceutical Products and allowing pharmacists thirty days in which to obtain this new list. (*El Peruano*, June 16, 1945.)

URUGUAY

255*a*. March 6, 1945. Presidential decree fixing maximum prices for white refined sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, March 10, 1945.)

263*a*. April 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4961, fixing the limits of a naval air base security zone (see Uruguay 60*a*, BULLETIN, January 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, April 17, 1945.)

264*a*. April 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4755, suspending for the period the Republic is at war with Germany and Japan the use of certain army uniforms. (*Diario Oficial*, May 2, 1945.)

264*b*. April 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4777, making special provisions concerning rights and privileges of Uruguayans who serve voluntarily in the armed forces of the United Nations during the present war. (*Diario Oficial*, April 30, 1945.)

264*c*. April 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 393/944, fixing prices for the 1944-45 rice crop. (*Diario Oficial*, May 3, 1945.)

268. May 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 837/945, fixing maximum prices for bricks. (*Diario Oficial*, May 21, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

213. May 19, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, granting a 45-day extension to a specified firm required by joint resolution of January 25, 1945 (see Venezuela 199, BULLETIN, June 1945) to liquidate its business in Venezuela. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

214. May 19, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, making provisions for auctioning the merchandise, trade-marks and other unliquidated property of a specified Axis-owned company. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

215. May 19, 1945. Resolution, Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, and Treasury, making provisions for auctioning the merchandise, trade-marks, and other unliquidated property of a specified Axis-owned firm. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

216. May 19, 1945. Resolution No. 133, Customs Office, Ministry of the Treasury, extending until December 7, 1945, the effectiveness of Resolution No. 27 of February 19, 1945 (see Venezuela 202, BULLETIN, June 1945), allowing duty-free importation of Roman cement. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1945.)

217. June 2, 1945. Resolution No. 16, Economy and Finance Office, Ministry of the Treasury, listing merchandise and fixing the conditions for the auction provided for in a joint ministerial resolution of May 19, 1945 (see 215 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

143*a*. May 5, 1944. Treaty of friendship between the Republics of Costa Rica and China. (*La Gaceta*, Costa Rica, June 16, 1945.)

193*a*. April 25, 1945. Resolution No. 2202, extending to June 30, 1947, the rubber agreement between the United States and Honduras (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 36, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Informe*, Oficina Intermediaria para la Exportación de Hule, Ministerio de Fomento, Agricultura y Trabajo, Tegucigalpa, Honduras, June 30, 1945.)

202a. May 14, 1945. Extension to May 14, 1946 of the food production agreement between the United States and Venezuela signed May 14, 1943 and extended May 13, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 94c and 144a, BULLETIN, September 1943 and February 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 15, 1945.)

216. July 11, 1945. Ratification by El Salvador of the Charter of the United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 22, 1945.)

217. July 26, 1945. Proclamation issued at Potsdam, Germany, by the heads of the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and China, defining the terms of Japanese surrender. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 29, 1945.)

218. July 27, 1945. Adherence by the Government of Chile to the Agreement on Principles Having Reference to the Continuance of Co-ordinated Control over Merchant Shipping signed at London August 5, 1944 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 155, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 5, 1945.)

219. July 27, 1945. Signature by Paraguay of the Interim Agreement in International Civil Aviation, the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the International Air Services Transit Agreement (Two Freedoms), and the International Air Transport Agreement (Five Freedoms). (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 171a, BULLETIN, June 1945.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 5, 1945.)

220. July 31, 1945. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Iraq on the principles applying to aid for defense. (*The*

Department of State Bulletin, August 5, 1945.)

221. August 2, 1945. Report on the Tripartite Conference held by President Truman, Marshal Stalin, and Prime Ministers Churchill and Attlee at Berlin, July 17-August 2, 1945. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 5, 1945.)

222. August 7, 1945. Summary of the agreement among the Governments of the United Kingdom, the United States, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the Provisional Government of the French Republic on control machinery in Austria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 12, 1945.)

223. August 7, 1945. Summary of the agreement among the Governments of the United Kingdom, the United States, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the Provisional Government of the French Republic on zones of occupation in Austria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 12, 1945.)

224. August 8, 1945. Signature by the President of the United States of the formal document ratifying the Charter of the United Nations, with the Statute of the International Court of Justice annexed, which action was approved by the United States Senate on July 28, 1945 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212 and 213, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, July 29, 1945 and August 12, 1945.)

225. August 8, 1945. Declaration by the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics that as of August 9, 1945, it will consider itself in a state of war with Japan and that it joins in the Japanese surrender terms of the Potsdam declaration of July 26, 1945 (see 217 above). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 12, 1945.)

Volta Redonda

MARIA EUGENIA CELSO

PASSEI de trem. Se paramos, foi apenas uns minutos. Mas, mesmo assim de longe e de depressa, a visão é inesquecível.

Entre o emaranhamento dos guindastes, o início de uma floresta de chaminés, polias, torreões, montanhas russas de vagonetes em cremalheiras improvisadas. Sob o azulado da altura tôda uma estranha maquinaria em sucessão de formas ríspidas, atiradas em gestos hirtos de vigas de ferro e contorsões de gradeados de arame entre enormes cubos de cimento armado. São os altos fornos em construção. É a usina modelo onde se começa a forjar o futuro do Brasil. São os alicerces da indústria siderúrgica nacional, ali em via de promissora atividade. Em derredor, todo um formigamento de pequenas habitações de engenheiros, guaritas de guardas, entrecruzar de trilhos, amontoados de ferramentas, desvios de vagões de carga, barracões de depósito, poços e tanques de escoamento. Um panorama novo, inédito, espantoso na placidez da paisagem regional. Uma impressão de força em projeção, trabalho intenso, energia propulsora. Sente-se que está principiando realmente ali qualquer coisa de grande que pode vir a ser grandiosa. Uma atmosfera de segurança parece envolver êste cenário tão desconcertantemente metalúrgico no descampado de em tórno. E, sem querer, na passageira sugestão daquela cidade do ferro surgindo a pouco e pouco do solo ao ritmo organizado do trabalho, na interdependência do esforço conjugado de engenheiros e operários, a lembrança de

Pittsburgh, cidadela do aço, a Meca da siderurgia americana, me invadiu a memória. . . .

No livro de Marcia Davenport, recentemente traduzido, através a ficção de um romance, tôda a impressionante evolução metalúrgica e social dêste grande centro produtor dos Estados Unidos se acha detalhadamente reconstituída. É a adolescência, a juventude e a maturidade de Pittsburgh que ali se acham consignadas num painel de intenso e momentoso interêsse. Tôda a pujança, a importância, a grandeza do ferro ali se fazem formidavelmente sentir. As ligas do aço ao cromo, ao vanádio, ao tungstênio, ao manganês que, na primeira parte do volume, tão estranhas pareciam ao tradicionalismo intransigente dos antigos industriais, constituem hoje o elemento primórdio da estupenda produção dos fornos americanos. Volta Redonda lá chegará. Instalada já com todo o moderno mecanismo e o mais adiantado aparelhamento técnico, não conhecerá, por certo, como Pittsburgh, aqueles longos estágios tateantes entre uma e outra inovação. A medida que se findarem as obras de instalação, a imensa usina iniciará o seu titânico labor de produção. Das suas entranhas de fogo, onde as matérias primas trituradas, combinadas, amalgamadas, sairão transformadas em outros tantos aparelhos de trabalho, de construção e de defesa, o ferro brasileiro se afirmará como fator proeminente no soerguimento econômico da nossa terra. Volta Redonda já é uma realidade, mesmo para quem sômente a atravessa de passagem. E a gente, sem querer, ante o espetáculo imponente da sua gestação, põe-se a sonhar coisas grandiosas. . . .

Extraído do "Jornal do Brasil," Rio de Janeiro, 3 de janeiro de 1945. Veja-se a fotografia em frente à primeira página.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Two Latin American women in UNRRA

A present and a former member of the Inter-American Commission of Women are going to Germany as Directors of Social Service in UNRRA. They are Señora Ofelia Mendoza de Barret, the representative of Honduras on the Commission, and Madame Madeleine Sylvain Bouchereau, at one time representative of Haiti.

Señora de Mendoza is an educator who has specialized at home and abroad in secondary education. She has represented Honduras at many conferences on education and in 1937 made a study of the new Mexican rural school. Later she organized educational recreation in Michigan for the Mexican workers brought into the United States to help during the war emergency.

Madame Bouchereau is a lawyer by profession. After studying in the United States on a fellowship of the American Association of University Women, she returned to Haiti as Director of Rural Education and professor of sociology at the University. She recently published an excellent book on the education of girls and women in Haiti.

Preparation for the Ninth International Conference of American States

Señora Marta Vergara de Chamudes, the delegate of Chile to the Commission, is assisting in the preparation of the report on the political, judicial, and social status of women in the

Americas that the Inter-American Commission of Women is required to present to the Ninth Conference at Bogotá next year.

Brief notes

At the Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, held last July and August at Caracas, a resolution was passed recommending to all the American republics that they include women members on the staffs of the rural extension services in order to help improve conditions of living for country women.

Señorita Abigaíl A. Coiscou, a Dominican lawyer who cooperates actively with the Inter-American Commission of Women, has recently published a second edition of the Dominican Penal Code, with laws that implement and supplement it.

Señorita María Rosario Aráoz, Director of the Peruvian Social Service School, has been in the United States at the invitation of the Department of State to visit institutions in her field. The Pan American Liaison Committee, in which the most important women's organizations with headquarters in Washington are represented, held a special meeting in her honor.

Mrs. Frank Colbourn, ex-president of the Pan American Association of Oakland, California, was recently honored by the Latin American consuls in San Francisco, all of whom signed a scroll recognizing her valuable work in inter-American cooperation.

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

ON August 29, 1945, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union approved a plan of organization of the Inter-American Economic and Social Council, provided for in a resolution adopted at the recent Conference on Problems of War and Peace held in Mexico City. At the same time the Board approved October 20 as the date of the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace and Security to be held at Rio de Janeiro, and authorized the appointment of a special committee to consider the program and regulations of the Conference. (See page 579.) The Hon. James F. Byrnes, Secretary of State of the United States, presided over the meeting. He was elected Chairman of the Board on July 16.

Economic and Social Council

The Inter-American Economic and Social Council is to replace the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee which was established as an emergency agency in 1939 following the outbreak of the war in Europe and which has functioned at the Pan American Union during the past six years. The Council will consist of one representative appointed by each of the American Republics with such technical advisers as each Government may wish to designate, and will serve as the coordinating agency for all official inter-American economic and social activities. Its purpose is to promote social progress and the raising of the standard of living for all the American peoples, and undertake studies and prepare

reports on economic and social matters for the use of the American Republics.

The Council will be a dependency of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. The Board will appoint the Secretary General of the Council, who will also serve as Administrator of economic and social activities of the Union, and in that capacity have under his direction the divisions of the Union operating in the field of economic and social affairs.

Columbus Memorial Lighthouse

The Governing Board also approved a plan submitted by the Government of the Dominican Republic to proceed with the construction of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, which is to be erected on the coast of the Dominican Republic as a tribute of all the nations of the Western Hemisphere to the Discoverer.

Tribute to Dr. Rowe

At the same meeting, Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, then Ambassador of Mexico in the United States and now Minister of Foreign Affairs of that country, proposed a vote of congratulation to Dr. L. S. Rowe, saying: "It seems timely to recall that September 1 next is Dr. Rowe's twenty-fifth anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union. I take advantage of the occasion, therefore, to offer a vote of confidence to Dr. Rowe because of the devotion, tact, and zeal that he has always displayed in the exercise of his duties and to express the hope that he

will continue to serve as the Director General for many years with the same activity and decision that he has always displayed."

The Chairman of the Board, the Hon. James F. Byrnes, Secretary of State of the United States, immediately added his voice to the tribute. "I well remember, Dr. Rowe," he said, "that when I first came to the House of Representatives some twenty-five years ago, I found you already devoting yourself to your task. The Government of the United States

has observed with special pleasure that your heart has been in the Pan American Union all these years. Therefore it is a great pleasure to me to join with the other members of the Board in the well deserved tribute paid you today."

The Director General expressed his warm thanks, saying that he had always esteemed it an honor and a privilege to work with the Governing Board for the unity of the Americas.

Pan American News

Economic teamwork in Guatemala

GUATEMALA'S new administration, taking its stand for a democracy that does not lie dormant between election days, is organizing a series of regional economic congresses in which the economic difficulties of a given locality are attacked by the combined energy and common sense of all parts of the population. Merchants, farm laborers, large landowners, manufacturers, workmen, and small shopkeepers put their heads together to decide just what are the serious economic problems of the region, what probably causes them, and what might well be done immediately toward solving them.

The first of these regional conferences was held in Escuintla from May 27 to June 2, 1945. It covered the Pacific zone of Guatemala from Retalhuleu to Guazacapán—all of the Pacific coast country except the border territories. The meetings were planned and carried out by a committee under the combined auspices of the

Ministries of Economy, Agriculture, the Treasury, and the Interior, and each of those ministers presided over one or more of the plenary sessions. President Juan José Arévalo opened the congress, and presided at the closing session.

Delegates to the congress were chosen by votes of their neighbors and colleagues. In each municipality of the zone the large landowners elected one of their number to represent them, while the farm laborers did the same. In each department the manufacturers, workmen, wholesale merchants, and retail merchants chose their own delegates, and there were delegates from certain important schools and unions and from all the Indian villages of the zone, as well as from the national Congress, the national University, and the national Chamber of Congress. For the first time these men of different occupations could discuss in person the local problems that concerned them all, and could present their views to the government officials most interested.

The conference dealt with a wide variety of local difficulties, and made many concrete recommendations. It stressed the need of certain labor and health measures, of prompt application of the price control policy announced in the recent Economic Emergency Law, and of a careful shifting of the tax burden from everyday necessities to luxuries. It urged the immediate need of side roads to serve the highways, and asked that in cases where the road was not important enough for a covering appropriation public roads officials provide tools and technical guidance, depending upon local cooperation for the labor.

Other recommendations outlined definite preliminary steps toward the electrification of the zone, toward improvement of water supplies and drainage, and toward more numerous and more useful rural schools. The congress asked for a revaluation of lands, and for local enforcement of the constitutional guarantee of equal pay for equal work. It recommended that a system of passenger and freight transport be organized before the removal of wartime gasoline restrictions. Other resolutions dealt with social security, soil studies, weights and measures, local banking agencies, municipal slaughterhouses, producers' and consumers' cooperatives, and rural medical care.

A continuing committee was selected to make known the findings of the congress, to observe the development of the policies recommended, and to make a report to the Pacific zone's next economic congress.

Chilean-American commercial agreement

Chile's support of the economic objectives of the Atlantic Charter and the Mexico City conference has taken tangible form in the reduction of duties on certain commodities

imported from the United States. The provisional commercial agreement which made these concessions was concluded by an exchange of notes on July 30, 1945, and will be in force for one year unless meanwhile superseded by a more comprehensive agreement. It may be terminated by either Government upon thirty days' notice.

The articles upon which new lower duties are now granted include thread and yarns; cotton, wool, and silk fabrics; laces, ribbons, and buttons; gloves; umbrellas; ready-made clothing for men and boys, women and girls, and babies; cosmetics, perfumes, and soaps; medicines; razors; tools; wall-papers; and various forms of iron, steel, and nickel.

This new agreement does not in any way change the provisional commercial agreement of February 1, 1938, by which Chile and the United States reciprocally conceded unconditional and unlimited most-favored-nation treatment in all that concerns customs duties and all accessory imposts. Representatives of both nations added to their approval of the 1945 agreement an expression of willingness to undertake negotiations for the conclusion of a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation.

Renewal of Colombian-Venezuelan commercial agreement

The commercial agreement entered into by Colombia and Venezuela on March 14, 1936, and renewed each year thereafter, was extended for another year on March 13, 1945.

The agreement facilitates border and transit trade between the two republics. It authorizes the duty-free entry into Colombia of 1,200 metric tons of Venezuelan salt and 25,000 head of Venezuelan cattle annually, and exempts from Venezuelan

transit taxes produce and merchandise exported from or destined for Colombia via Venezuela.

According to Article 3 of the 1945 agreement, Colombia will not impose taxes of any sort on cattle imported from Venezuela to the Department of Norte de Santander grazing lands, provided such cattle are covered by a Venezuelan veterinary certificate regarding vaccination, if they are given tick baths, and examinations show they are apparently free from infectious diseases.

Cooperative rubber production in Honduras

A report rendered June 30, 1945, by the Rubber Export Office of the Honduran Ministry of Development, Agriculture, and Labor supplied interesting data on that country's contribution to the United Nations' victory.

Under the terms of a cooperative agreement for plantation rubber investigations and experiments in Honduras, signed between the United States Department of Agriculture and the Government of Honduras on February 28, 1941 and extended on June 28, 1943, and likewise under a rubber extraction and purchasing agreement entered into August 3, 1942, between various United States agencies and the Government of Honduras and extended in April 1945 to June 30, 1947, the two countries have been cooperating to achieve the largest possible exports of Honduran rubber in the shortest possible time.

Rubber extraction has been difficult in Honduras, because the producing areas lie in the least populated and least accessible regions. It is necessary to build up communications routes and to maintain a complete provisioning service for the rubber workers. River transportation has been used

to a large extent and commissaries were installed at central points. To facilitate these procedures Honduras permitted the duty-free importation of large quantities of equipment, fuel, and other supplies from the United States.

The Rubber Development Corporation of the United States, which in cooperation with the Honduran Government is in charge of rubber exploitation, at present employs 430 workers, mostly Hondurans, in addition to office personnel and technicians. During the year July 1944-June 1945, rubber totaling 623,591 pounds, valued at 345,076 lempiras¹, passed through the customs houses of Tela, La Ceiba, and Amapala on its way to the United States and thence to the armed forces of the United Nations. In the 34 months ending June 30, 1945 since the Rubber Development Corporation began its work in Honduras, a total of 772,749 pounds of rubber valued at 431,004 lempiras was exported; in other words, an average of more than 11 tons a month.

Industrial census in Colombia

An industrial census covering all establishments which have a pay roll of five or more is now in progress in Colombia. Each factory will report its capital and assets, its holdings in real estate, machinery and tools, and automobiles and other vehicles, as well as its stock of raw materials. Power consumption will be noted, with expenses for fuel and lubricants of all kinds, and for rent. There will be a record of amounts paid out for accident and sickness benefits, and of time lost through fiestas, religious holidays, strikes, and other causes.

The census will form a valuable contribution to tax and trade studies, for it will in-

¹ As of May 31, 1945, the exchange value of the lempira was \$0.4902 U. S. currency.

clude a tabulation of the sums expended for customs duties, excise taxes, and revenue stamps which enter into the selling price of manufactured products. It will also provide itemized lists of the added machinery which would immediately be bought for repair and expansion purposes if a supply should become available; and it will show estimates of the increases in production which might be expected to result from such expansion.

International air travel and the immigration laws

A recent amendment to the immigration regulations of the United States is welcomed as an important step in promoting good will in the countries of Central and South America because it clears away legal questions which had been impeding the travel of citizens of those countries coming by air overland to Mexico on the way to the United States. The amendment states that persons not citizens of the United States on aircraft arriving overland in territory contiguous to the United States on journeys which did not begin outside of North or South America shall not be held to be subject to section 23 of the Immigration Act of 1917 or section 17 of the Immigration Act of 1924 of the United States. It means that such passengers upon applying for admission to the United States will not be excluded from admission because they do not prove that they have resided in such contiguous territory for more than two years; or that the transportation line which brought them to such territory was under a contract with the United States that stipulated that in doing so the line would comply with the immigration laws of the United States the same as if it had brought them directly to a seaport of the United States. The amendment is an addition to section 116.52 of Title 8 of the Code of Federal Regulations of the United States.

The reasons for the amendment are explained in an article in the February issue of the *Monthly Review*, the magazine of the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service. The article is by Albert E. Reitzel, Assistant General Counsel of that Service. The amendment carries into effect the views of the law urged by him as Acting General Counsel of that Service in the case of Ramona Olga Chow de Carmichael which led to the issuance of the amendment by the Attorney General of the United States.

Nicaraguan labor law

Nicaragua has announced a labor law governing collective and individual labor contracts and providing for several government employment agencies where workers may be enrolled without charge. Employers will be required to bear the costs of occupational accidents and diseases; to carry out certain measures of sanitation and accident prevention; to provide lodgings in cases where work is done more than two miles from a village; and to provide a school in cases where there is no school within reach, and the workers' families include a total of 30 or more children of school age. They must not carry arms or take up collections at the place of work; they must not require workmen to buy at a certain store; and they must not charge a fee for employment or require the workmen to join or not to join a union.

Workmen on their part are forbidden to bring firearms to work, to come to work drunk, and to carry away materials belonging to the employer or use his tools for purposes of their own. They must keep the employer's secrets, and must move out of any lodgings provided by him as soon as the contract expires.

The law requires that 75 percent of the workmen in any establishment be either Nicaraguan citizens or foreigners who are married to Nicaraguans or have lived in the country for ten years. Any contract for labor to be performed outside the country must be approved by the Secretary of Labor, who will require specified deposits as security against possible claims and against the costs of repatriation.

New laws governing elections and political parties in Argentina

In preparation for elections which are to restore constitutional government in Argentina, a committee of magistrates was appointed by a decree of last December to draft a statute of political parties and other appropriate legislation. This committee had as its point of departure four principles set forth in the decree which created it: to espouse the principles, rights, and guarantees of the Sáenz Peña Law¹ on national elections; to eliminate fraud within parties; to examine and supervise the financial resources of the parties; and to repress infractions of electoral laws with greater severity and effectiveness. The legislation which it drafted was approved with a few modifications by a presidential decree of May 30, to become effective on August 1. In the meantime public reaction to the new electoral laws decided the Executive Power to make further changes, which were promulgated by Presidential Decree No. 17,428 about August 1. This decree also suspended the effectiveness of that part of the new legislation which had fixed rigorous penalties for failure to vote and for election fraud, leaving in force the pertinent provisions of the Sáenz Peña Law. Some provisions of the Political Parties Statute, as amended by

Decree No. 17,428, are set forth below.

An innovation provided for in the Political Parties Statute is the creation of an electoral branch in the federal judiciary. The High Electoral Court will sit in the Federal Capital. Its duties will include examining and passing on the financial accounts of the political parties and arbitrating in questions arising between federal and district party organizations. The federal electoral courts of each province and of the Federal Capital are to try cases of electoral offenses specified in the Sáenz Peña Law and its amendments; to judge all questions connected with the founding and functioning of political parties, with the electoral register and registers of party members, with the election of party officers and candidates for public office, and with the procedures of general elections.

In drawing up this statute the committee aimed at making the internal organization and procedure of the political parties a counterpart of the general political organization of the country. "If the parties are to practice our federal system in the government," they say, "it is necessary that they should have practiced it in their internal activities. . ." Thus a party is formed by a group of voters in one district and may join with parties of the same aims and principles in one or more other districts to make a "federation of district parties." But no party can exist in a given district without having an enrollment of at least 1½ percent of the voters in the electoral register of that district. Special provisions are made for the reorganization of the traditional Argentine parties, the Unión Cívica Radical, the Partido Demócrata Nacional, and the Partido Socialista, which will not have to go through the same formalities as parties seeking recognition for the first time.

Election of party officers and of party candidates for public office must be held under the same general conditions prescribed

¹ Law No. 8871, February 13, 1912.

for national elections, with the supervision of representatives of the federal electoral courts. Voting must be by secret ballot and is compulsory for all party members. A party member who does not pay his regular dues for six consecutive months, or who fails to vote in a national election or in two successive party elections, loses his party membership.

The original text of the Statute made literacy a prerequisite for party membership, but this provision was cut out by the presidential decree enacting the law on the ground that this would restrict the principle of universal suffrage. The law accords no vote to women, although in an ambiguously worded clause it opens the way for their participation in party activities.

Candidacy for party office is declared incompatible with the management or ownership of public works or public service concessions, the habitual handling of contracts for government supplies, and paid service with such enterprises or holders of contracts. Parties may not accept donations from such enterprises or from those sponsoring games of chance, from foreign organizations or authorities, labor organizations, or anonymous persons; nor may they accept forced donations from public employees.

A voter not affiliated with a party may be put forward as an independent candidate for public office by a number of unaffiliated voters equivalent to that required for organizing a political party.

A detailed record of campaign finances must be presented by each party to the electoral court in its district, as well as a yearly account of all receipts and expenditures. National election campaign expenses must not exceed 30,000 pesos per candidate; however, this is exclusive of expenditures for travel, subsistence, correspondence, and tele-

phone and telegraph services.

The restraint with which elections are to be conducted will be grasped by United States readers on learning that the new Argentine law forbids destruction or alteration of campaign posters which have been put up in authorized places. Another interesting provision forbids the use in campaign propaganda of the names or pictures of the great Argentine patriots.

During the period immediately preceding national elections and on election day itself all radio stations will be required to give a certain amount of time to the High Electoral Court so that it may acquaint the public with the provisions of the law regarding elections.

The Political Parties Statute introduces the system for party elections of a provisional count of votes on the spot immediately after the closing of the polls. This will lessen the danger of falsification of election returns, and the immediate announcement of the results will obviate the evils caused by the prolonged suspense of waiting to learn the outcome of the elections. After the provisional count, the votes will be returned to the ballot box, which will then be sealed and delivered to the authorities entrusted with making the final count.

Two accessory decrees made public on August 1 complete Argentina's new electoral legislation. One amends the law on composition of electoral registers. The other repeals previous legislation which amended the Sáenz Peña Law, and reestablishes the system of voting for only two-thirds of the candidates on the ballot of deputies and presidential, vice-presidential, and senatorial electors, in order to insure minority representation.

As yet no date has been set for the Argentine elections.—E. P. DA S.

Women physicians in Brazil

The Brazilian College of Surgeons admitted its first woman member this year. She is Dr. Carmen Escobar Pires, who has a large practice in São Paulo.

In commenting on this event, a writer in the *Jornal do Commercio* recalled a number of interesting facts in connection with Brazilian women physicians. The first woman to receive a degree as Doctor of Medicine is supposed to have been Dona Rita Lobato Velho Lopes of Rio Grande do Sul, who graduated from the Bahia Medical School in 1887. After practicing a long time in her native state, she is now retired.

The first woman to graduate from the Medical School at Rio de Janeiro was Dona Ermelinda Lopes de Vasconcelos, who won her degree in 1888. She was put through an especially severe oral examination, which was witnessed by a crowd of curious auditors. A newspaper of the time said that one might imagine Hippocrates frowning at this unheard-of event.

Today there are about 30 women students in the São Paulo Medical School. Since 1918, 40 women have completed the course in this school and 16 have presented theses for their Doctor's degree. Two are members of the Medical and Surgical Society of São Paulo: the aforementioned Dr. Carmen Escobar Pires and Dr. Carlota de Queiroz, who was a deputy in the last Brazilian Congress.

The United States Quarterly Book List

The Library of Congress has published the first two numbers of *The United States Quarterly Book List*, for March and June 1945. Each number of this selective list, which is issued in compliance with a recommendation of the Inter-American Conference on the

Maintenance of Peace (Buenos Aires, 1936), contains data on important books printed in the United States in the preceding quarter and on their authors. There are sections for the fine arts, literature, philosophy and religion, biography, the social sciences, the biological sciences, the physical sciences, and technology. On every book listed there is a brief comment by an authority on the respective subject. More than 250 books have been noted so far. The editor of the List is Joseph P. Blickensderfer. He is assisted by a distinguished advisory committee.

Protection of artistic treasures in Ecuador

The Government of Ecuador recently took steps to protect archaeological and colonial treasures by means of a law that declares pre-Columbian remains, colonial buildings, sculpture, paintings, wood carvings, ceramics, metal objects, books, manuscripts, and art objects in general considered of historic and artistic value to be a part of the national artistic heritage. Owners, administrators, or custodians of such buildings or objects must declare them in order that an official list may be made; this obligation extends to governmental institutions and religious communities as well as private persons. The law also establishes control over archaeological investigations; prohibits repairs, restorations, or changes in any monuments or objects without official sanction; and allows no object covered by the law to be sent out of the country except with official permission for exhibition or similar purposes.

University administration in Guatemala

Reorganization of the University of San Carlos, Guatemala, has placed the chief authority in the hands of a university council

consisting of the rector, the deans, and one professor and one student from each of the university's schools. In each school the professors who have served a year or more will elect one of their number to represent them, and the students who have completed their first year with passing grades will do the same. The university council is to control entrance requirements, courses of study, and the awarding of degrees, honors, and fellowships; it will also prepare the budget and rule on matters of deportment.

The rector of the university is to be elected by the university's electoral body, which will have from each school ten professors and ten students chosen in the same manner as the representatives on the university council. This body will choose by majority vote a rector who will serve for four years. At the end of his term the rector may be reelected once, but for this he will need a two-thirds vote.

Maternity hospital for Bogotá

Within the next two or three years Bogotá will have in the *Clínica de Maternidad David Restrepo* one of America's great maternity hospitals, one which will provide skilful and comfortable care in accordance with the highest standards of today. Its services will be for the benefit of native-born Colombian women who are living on a family income of 200 pesos¹ a month or less, and will be entirely free.

To this hospital will be devoted most of the estate of Señor David Restrepo Mejía, owner of Ciudad Restrepo and other large real estate developments in Bogotá, who spent the last 28 years of his life in Switzerland and died early this year in Lausanne. Some three or four million pesos,¹ it is

estimated, will remain after legacies and minor bequests have been provided. Four Colombians named in the will are to direct the building activities and draw up the statutes which will govern the hospital; eventually it will be operated under management of a board of three, one to be chosen by the National Academy of Medicine, one by the Archbishop of Bogotá, and one by Señor Restrepo's sister, and after her death by the Bank of Bogotá.

The year of Señor Restrepo's death sees the completion of another fine hospital building in Bogotá. The San Carlos hospital for treatment of tuberculosis was given several years ago by Gustavo Restrepo Mejía, brother of Don David. Like the latter, Don Gustavo left the major part of a large fortune to be dedicated to the relief of suffering in his native city.

Hospital construction in the Dominican Republic

A permanent National Hospital Planning and Construction Board was recently established by official decree in the Dominican Republic. The Board's duties are three-fold: to determine the kind and capacity of the hospital which each city or region of the Republic should have, considering its population and special characteristics; to designate the best possible locations for hospital construction, taking into account the kind of hospital and the health and communications aspects of the locality selected; and to make definite plans for construction.

The Board is composed of two doctors, two engineers, two architects, and, as members *ex officio*, the Director General of Public Works, the Chairman of the Ciudad Trujillo Development Commission, and the Director of the Sanitary Engineering Division of the Department of Health and Public Welfare.

¹ On April 30, 1945 the exchange value of the Colombian peso was \$0.5727.

Conferences and expositions in the Americas

The BULLETIN presents below a list of conferences and expositions held in the various American republics between August 1, 1944 and July 24, 1945. This supplements and continues the list of conferences held during 1944 that was published in the March 1945 issue of the BULLETIN. The number of international conferences held in the Americas during the last year is especially notable.

ARGENTINA

- Córdoba, October 25, 1944. Third Argentine Congress on Ophthalmology.
Buenos Aires, October, 1944. Anthropological Congress.
Córdoba, November 7, 1944. Third Argentine Convention on Hotel Management and Related Activities.
Rosario, November 9, 1944. Fourth Argentine Congress of Retailers.
Buenos Aires, November 15, 1944. First National Conference of the Argentine Red Cross.
Buenos Aires, November 27, 1944. Second Convention of Industrial Physicians.
Tucumán, December 5, 1944. First Annual Conference of Agricultural and Sugar Technicians.
Buenos Aires, December 11, 1944. Second Conference of Physical Education Teachers.
Buenos Aires, March 11, 1945. Annual Congress of the Argentine Federation of Consumers' Cooperatives.
Buenos Aires, March 12, 1945. National Assembly of Municipalities.

BOLIVIA

- La Paz, October 14, 1944. Congress of the Bolivian Institute of Mining Engineering and Geology.
La Paz, May 10, 1944. First Bolivian National Indian Congress.

BRAZIL

- São Paulo, December 5, 1944. Seventh Congress on Coffee Growing.
São Paulo, December 8, 1944. Brazilian Industrial Congress.

CHILE

- Santiago, September 12, 1944. First Congress on Normal School Education.
Santiago, September 17, 1944. First Congress of Chilean Notaries.
Santiago, September 29, 1944. First National Convention of the Chilean Institute of Mining Engineers.
Santiago, December 15, 1944. Convention of Chilean Industrialists.
Santiago, January 4, 1945. Sixth Convention of the Chilean Teachers Union.
Santiago, January 8, 1945. National Education Congress.

COLOMBIA

- Pereira, October 12, 1944. Second Conference of the Presidents of the Colombian Chambers of Commerce.
Bogotá, November 6, 1944. Fourth National Truckmen's Congress.
Bogotá, November 27, 1944. National Congress of Stock Raisers.
Bogotá, May 15, 1945. Second National Congress of Cooperatives.

CUBA

- Sagua la Grande, November 17, 1944. Thirteenth Congress of Retail Grocers.
Habana, December 1, 1944. Fourth National Congress of the Confederation of Cuban Workers.
Habana, December 16, 1944. Twenty-fifth National Medical Assembly.
Habana, December 26, 1944. Sixth Congress of Doctors of Science and of Philosophy and Letters.
Habana, April 4, 1945. Fifth National Engineering Congress.
Santiago, April 16, 1945. National Rural Congress.
Habana, April 21, 1945. Second Urban Real Estate Congress.
Habana, May 7, 1945. Second National Cancer Congress.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

- San Cristóbal, May 16, 1945. Third Dominican Youth Congress.

ECUADOR

- Quito, August 1, 1944. Farmers' Congress.

Quito, November 1, 1944. National Congress of Private School Teachers.

Riobamba, March 20, 1945. Third National Textile Congress.

MEXICO

Acapulco, November, 1944. Third Convention of the Mexican Hotel Association.

Mérida, December 5, 1944. Second Peninsular Medical Congress.

Cuernavaca, April 9, 1945. First Convention of the Cotton Textile Industries.

Guadalajara, April 19, 1945. Eleventh National Banking Convention.

Gutiérrez Zamora, April 25, 1945. First National Convention of Vanilla Growers.

Guadalajara, May 2, 1945. Lions Club Convention.

Mexico City, May 14, 1945. Fifth Convention of the Mexican Society of Agricultural Science.

Guadalajara, May 25, 1945. National Congress of Urban Normal School Students.

Guadalajara, May 28, 1945. Second National Mathematics Congress.

PARAGUAY

Asunción, October, 1944. First National University Congress.

Asunción, December 11, 1944. English Teachers' Congress.

PERU

Lima, November 28, 1944. Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the Peruvian Academy of Stomatology.

Lima, December 18, 1944. First Convention of Rural Agents of the Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service.

Lima, January 5, 1945. Second Peruvian Congress of the Mining Industry.

Lima, February 26, 1945. First Convention of the Directors of National Secondary Schools.

URUGUAY

Montevideo, February 22, 1945. Teachers' Congress.

Montevideo, March 1, 1945. First Congress on Neurosurgery.

Montevideo, March, 1945. Congress of Rural School Teachers.

Montevideo, March 21, 1945. National Child Welfare Conference.

Montevideo, April 3, 1945. National Meeting of Municipal Officials.

Minas, April 7, 1945. Twenty-ninth Annual Congress of the Rural Federation.

Paysandú, April 19, 1945. First National Colonization Congress.

VENEZUELA

Caracas, November, 1944. First National Congress of the Venezuelan Students' Federation.

Maracaibo, January 21, 1945. Second Venezuelan Engineering Congress.

INTERNATIONAL

Habana, September 24, 1944. First Assembly of Caribbean Archivists.

Montevideo, November 9, 1944. Third Meeting, Chemical Conference of the River Plate.

Atlantic City, New Jersey, November 12. World Jewish Congress.

Buenos Aires, November 12, 1944. First Congress on Neurology and Psychiatry.

Montevideo, November 15, 1944. Second South American Congress of Ear, Nose, and Throat Specialists.

Lima, December, 1944. First Meeting of the Pan American Institute of Mining Engineering and Geology.

Habana, January 8, 1945. First Meeting of the Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law.

Habana, January 15, 1945. Sixth Pan American Tuberculosis Congress.

Habana, February 9, 1945. Conference on Post-war Tourist Travel on the Miami-Habana-Mexico City Circuit.

Mexico City, February 21, 1945. Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace.

Montevideo, March 12, 1945. First Latin American Zionist Congress.

Buenos Aires, April 20, 1945. Pan American Telecommunications Congress.

San Francisco, April 25, 1945. United Nations Conference on International Organization.

Caracas, May 11, 1945. Third Inter-American Press Congress.

El Paso, Texas, and Ciudad Juárez, Mexico, May 14, 1945. Third Annual Conference of the United States-Mexico Border Public Health Association.

Mexico City, July 23, 1945. Inter-American Committee on Social Security.

Caracas, July 24, 1945. Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture.

EXPOSITIONS

Tacuarembó, Uruguay, September 17, 1944. Eighteenth Exposition of Selected Breeding Cattle.

San José, Uruguay, October 21, 1944. National Fair and Dairy Cattle Show.

Montevideo, December 17, 1944. Third International Dog Show.

Córdoba, Argentina, December 20, 1944. Second Exhibition of Building Materials.

Guáimaro, Cuba, January 19, 1945. Seventh Fair and Livestock Show.

Lima, January 31, 1945. Second Exposition of the Peruvian Mining Industry.

Habana, February 22, 1945. Seventeenth National Poultry Exposition and First National Rabbit Show.

Habana, March 17, 1945. National Exposition of 5-C Clubs.

Lima, March 31, 1945. Permanent Exhibition of Home Industries.

Mexico City, March-April, 1945. Exhibition of Mexican Masks.

Florida, Uruguay, April 14, 1945. Third Fair and Exposition of Dairy Breeding Cattle.

La Paz, April 16, 1945. Argentine Industrial Exposition.

Quito, April 17, 1945. Exposition of Chemical-Pharmaceutical Industries.

Riobamba, Ecuador, April 25, 1945. Interprovincial Livestock Show and Fifth Annual Fair.

Mexico City, May 6, 1945. Fourth National Exposition of Floriculture.

Third Flower Salon; Second National Dog Show.

Jalapa, Mexico, May 16, 1945. Agricultural, Industrial, and Livestock Exposition.

We see by the papers that—

• Twenty-one homes, comprising the first unit of a new workers' housing project in

Ciudad Trujillo, were recently given to twenty-one workers by the Government of the *Dominican Republic*. The houses, designed in modern architectural style, have four rooms, kitchen, and bath; are equipped with electricity; and have small plots of ground for gardens. A park with flowerbeds and benches occupies the center of the housing area, and still another piece of ground has been set aside for an athletic field.

• Early in July 1945 the Government of *Venezuela* renewed the extension to *Haiti* for one year of most-favored-nation customs treatment with respect to imports from Haiti.

• *Panama* has begun a campaign against malaria in the interior, especially in the Río Hato area.

• Citizens of Pereira, *Colombia*, devoted the last Thursday in June to volunteer work on the city's airfield. Early in the morning they gathered in the plaza and walked to the field, four miles outside the town. By nine o'clock bankers and butchers, merchants and priests, bootblacks, shopkeepers, and chauffeurs were showing what they could do with pick and shovel. Fifteen to twenty thousand persons, it was estimated, took part in the digging.

• A legislative decree in *Ecuador*, approved April 11, 1945, provided for the creation of the National Nutrition Institute. It will work in cooperation with the Ministry of Social Welfare, Labor, and Health and the National Social Security Institute, to improve the diet and food habits of the nation as a whole, but particularly of the less privileged portion of the population.

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WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901-2; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely avail-

able to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

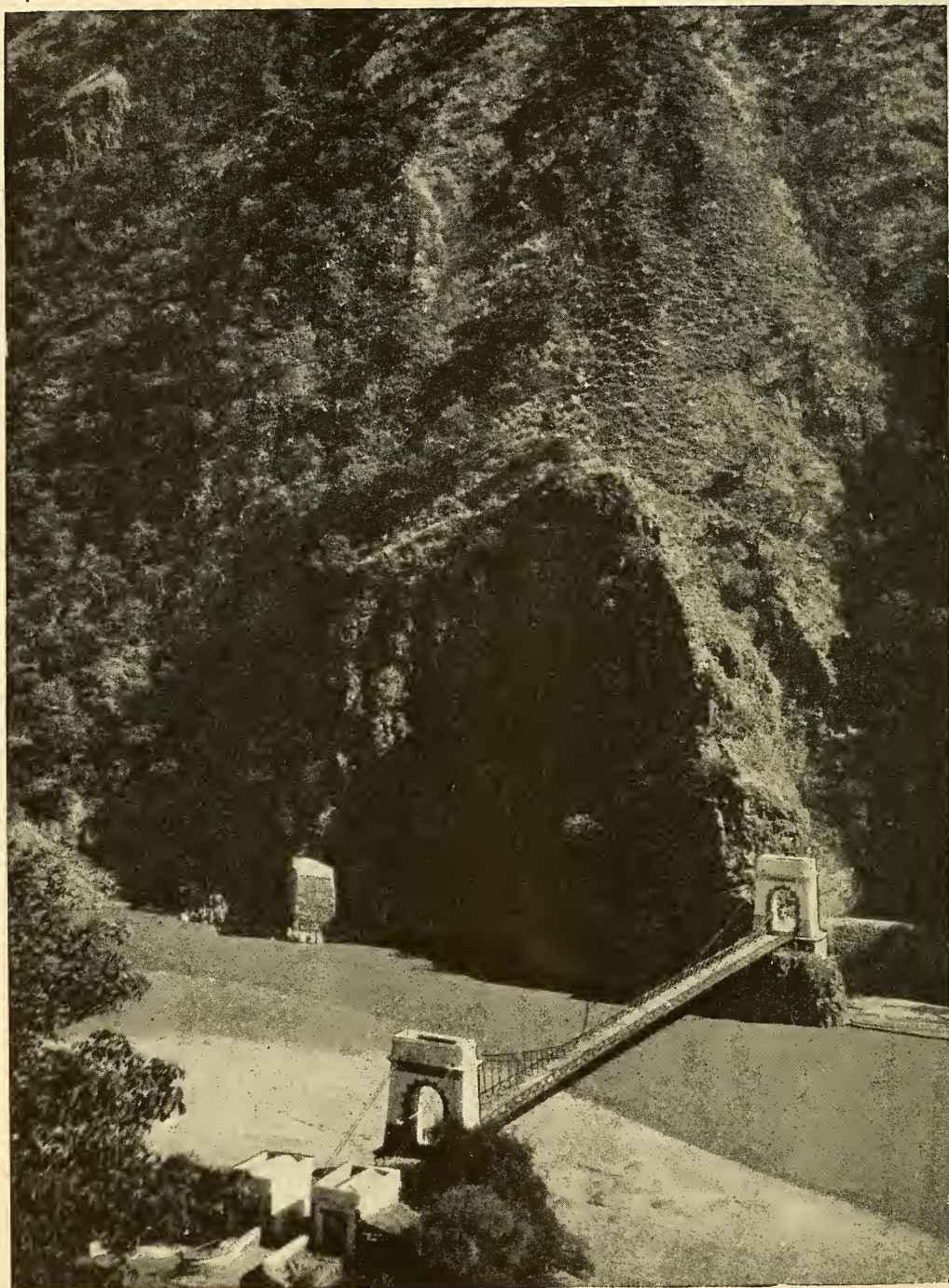


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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO AND STAIRWAY, PAN AMERICAN UNION



Photograph by Víctor León

A BRIDGE IN THE PERUVIAN ANDES

Peru is one of the countries in which outstanding progress has been made in extending good lateral and tributary roads, besides the work done on the national section of the Pan American Highway System.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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NOVEMBER 1945

A Quarter Century of Road Building in the Americas

E. W. JAMES

Chief, Inter-American Regional Office, United States Public Roads Administration

THE last quarter century in the Western Hemisphere has been preeminently an era of road building. Beginning in the nineties the strongest urge for highways flowed from the activities of Colonel A. A. Pope and the League of American Wheelmen. Perhaps the high point of these endeavors was coincident with the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America, when in 1893 replicas of the caravels that constituted the tiny fleet of Columbus sailed into New York Harbor and a series of civic, military and naval parades celebrated the anniversary. In a night parade of cyclists over 10,000 wheelmen pedalled their way

The Pan American Union celebrated on September 1, 1945, the twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. L. S. Rowe, as Director General. During these years the American republics have together made great progress, spiritual and material. In honor of the Director General, the BULLETIN is publishing a series of papers on inter-American relations, 1920-1945, of which this is the third.

from Union and Madison Squares to Grant's Tomb on Riverside Drive.

There followed a decade of transition when the automobile was being developed, but with the improvement of the internal combustion engine and the astonishing advance in automotive design, public attention was directed more and more to the highways and the entire United States became strongly road-minded.

In 1912 came the first Post Road Act—now almost forgotten—intended to disclose by its operations the most feasible form of cooperation between the local political units, the counties and the states, and the United States government in carrying out a general program of highway construction. In 1916 came the first Federal Aid Act, and when the United States entered World War I there were five states in each of which there were registered as many motor vehicles as

in all the other belligerent countries combined.

The repercussions of this movement were soon felt throughout the rest of the Americas, and in the early twenties we find several Latin American republics similarly turning their minds to the improvement of their internal communications by making provisions for organizing and systematizing national highway construction. Among the first of these significantly was Chile, which enacted a basic highway law in March 1920. In the following year the Republic of Panama began the systematic survey and construction of highways eventually to extend over the western half of the republic. By 1924 over 181 miles of surveys had been

completed. In 1925 the Mexican public was aroused and enthused by the proposal to build a road from the Rio Grande to Mexico City. That year the work was started, and the state of the public mind can be appraised by studying the details of the contention which soon arose whether the road should go by Victoria or Saltillo to the south of Monterrey.

Coincident with these modest beginnings came the first general expression of highway solidarity to be evoked by the growing consensus of popular opinion. At the Fifth International Conference of American States, held at Santiago, Chile, in 1923, a resolution introduced by the Chilean delegation was adopted, advocating the construction of a



THE INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY IN 1945



THE SOUTH AMERICAN SECTION OF THE PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY IN 1943

system of motor roads to connect the capitals of all of the American republics. This was the beginning of the Pan American Highway system, as well as the first forward-looking step toward a general road-building program throughout Central and South America. In Argentina, a beginning of road building had been made under the Mitre law, but the revenue had fluctuated widely. In 1913 it was \$1,850,000; in 1918 only \$793,000. By 1928 it had risen to \$5,500,000, but in 1927 and 1928 the Province of Buenos Aires failed to pass a law authorizing a bond issue for roads, although Santa Fe in the preceding year had launched a road building program under a provincial bond issue. Following the Santiago Conference a movement was started in Argentina toward the creation of a Dirección Nacional de Vialidad with a separate annual

budget, and there was a strongly developed national sentiment for federal construction of a highway system.

In 1928 the first national highway fund was established in Uruguay, and in the following year Colombia organized the Consejo Nacional de Vías, which continues as the controlling force in the development of communications through the tremendous cordilleras and far-flung valleys of that astonishing country.

Meanwhile road construction was continuing rapidly under the Federal Aid acts in the United States, and in 1924 a group of highway engineers and administrators from some 17 of the other American republics came to the United States as the guests of the Pan American Highway Confederation. Facilities were provided for these visitors to observe highway construction in different



Courtesy U. S. Public Roads Administration

A TEMPORARY SURFACE ON A COSTA RICAN HIGHWAY



Courtesy U. S. Public Roads Administration

HEAVY CONSTRUCTION IN A MOUNTAINOUS REGION

The highway administrations in the American countries have learned to profit by each other's experience through conferences and periodic contacts.

parts of the United States, to see the new types of equipment which were being introduced, and to study methods of Federal administration of highways on a national scale. This was an unusual group of men, as evinced by the fact that subsequently most of them rose to positions of high authority and responsibility in either administrative or technical phases of road building in their respective countries. In 1925 the First Pan American Highway Congress was held in Buenos Aires at the invitation of the Argentine government, and four years later a Second Congress was held in Rio de Janeiro. In the meantime the Sixth International Conference of American States, which convened at Habana in 1928, recommended to the Rio Congress that it consider ways and means of furthering highway construction

internationally among the nations of the western hemisphere.

The problem was astounding in its magnitude, for it involved nothing less than a program for building the roads of a continent. A small minority of the countries were getting organized for national road construction, but the reports of those days, viewed with the eyes of the present, offer a picture of accomplishment so slight as to be almost negligible. The remarkable thing is that within the limits of the quarter century which saw the virtual beginning of road construction in Latin America such extensive progress should have been made.

In this connection it is a notable fact that over this period the highway administrations of most of the countries concerned learned to profit by the experiences of each other



Courtesy U. S. Public Roads Administration

SUSPENSION BRIDGE AT CHOLUTECA, HONDURAS

The over-all length of this bridge is 1088 feet.

through conferences and periodic contacts, and as implied in the resolution at Santiago in 1923, most of the countries directed their efforts to the improvement of roads systematically connected which would furnish a nucleus for the creation in each country of a highway system. Panama, Mexico, and Argentina forged ahead on their main line construction, and in 1930, following the First Inter-American Highway Conference in Panama, the reconnaissance surveys of a continuous road across Mexico and Central America were inaugurated. This project contemplated the extension southward from Mexico City of the road already well advanced by the Mexicans. In Argentina two transcontinental routes were projected; one by Mendoza to connect with Chile, and one by Córdoba, eventually to cross Bolivia and

through Peru to reach the Pacific. By 1939, when the Third Pan American Highway Congress was held at Santiago, remarkable progress had been made.

Coincident with the early plans for highway construction which would connect the several countries and the two continents of the Americas, the interest that might be expected to be awakened by such proposals was disclosed by the efforts made to accomplish long distance overland trips between North and South America. While some of these undertakings might almost be considered in their details as foolhardy, they were from the start very sincere efforts either to discover and suggest a suitable route or to demonstrate that the long overland trip could in fact be made. In 1925 and 1926, A. F. Tschiffely rode two Argentine

ponies from Buenos Aires to New York City. It is true he had to take ship across one or two short gaps, but his journey as described in *Ten Thousand Miles in the Saddle from Southern Cross to Pole Star* furnishes most interesting information regarding the condition of the region through which he traveled in those years.

In 1928 Roger de Courteville crossed the continent of South America from Rio de Janeiro via Corumbá and La Paz to Lima. For a considerable distance his car was transported in sections on mule back, and his interesting description of the journey in *La Première Traverse de l'Amérique du Sud en Automobile*, is, like Tschiffely's, a broad account of the region through which he passed.

In 1928 a group of Brazilians left Rio de Janeiro determined to travel all the way to New York using the same automobile. This party was ten years on the way and reached Washington in April 1938. A very interesting document giving an account of

the entire anabasis was deposited by this group in the Library of the Pan American Union, and as the party endeavored to travel as closely as possible to suggested, and sometimes to approved, routes for a Pan American Highway, their account furnished helpful and valuable information regarding the conditions to be met in the several countries. In 1935 a party organized by the Automobile Association of Southern California started southward through Mexico and in 1936 continued its trip as far as San Salvador. About the same time the Lyons brothers, Joe and Arthur, two venturesome young men from Nevada, without the special preparations possible for an organization like the Automobile Club, started in a Ford car and finally got as far as Managua. For a part of the distance in Mexico they removed their rubber tires, bolted flanges on their automobile wheels, and traveled the railroad under their own power. Another young adventurer, a Boy Scout named Sara-



Courtesy U. S. Public Roads Administration

ANOTHER GOOD BRIDGE ON THE INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY

fia from Venezuela, started northward to attend the annual Scout Jamboree in the United States. He got through, but only in time for the Jamboree of the year following that contemplated. Then in 1939 and subsequently the inevitable eagerness of certain hardy motorists to become the first to make the journey overland led to a group of most laudable efforts to cover the ground and describe the conditions encountered. In 1939 Herbert A. Lanks and Harry A. Franck went through Central America. In 1940 Mrs. Constance J. Henley made the trip northward from southern Argentina to Washington. In 1941 Lanks and Pleiss went from Caracas to Magallanes in southern Patagonia, and about the same time Sullivan Richardson with two companions endeavored to cover the entire route from the United States to Cape Horn and nearly succeeded. That same year a group of motorists, sponsored by the Argentine Automobile Club, made a trip from Buenos Aires to Caracas in an astonishingly short time and reported conditions with details of interest to the motorist. All of these efforts and innumerable inquiries regarding the feasibility of going to South America or traveling from South America to the United States and Mexico by highway disclose the growing interest in every country in the opening of a through route suitable for general travel and for tourist activities.

Active construction according to preestablished programs had been gaining momentum in Mexico, Chile, Peru, and Argentina. On July 4, 1936, the Mexican Government had a formal opening of the 764-mile section from Mexico City to the Rio Grande. This incident in celebration of the connection accomplished between the Mexican capital and the entire highway system of the United States served to demonstrate several important conditions. The Mexican administration had become thoroughly road-minded. The engineering organization of the Mexi-

can Highway Department had demonstrated its complete competence to handle a most difficult location problem in a long mountain section, and its construction force had shown a drive and persistency that promised well for the future. In Chile important connections around Santiago had been advanced or completed—the roads to Valparaíso, to San Antonio, and up the coast to Quintero.

In Argentina the route from Buenos Aires to Córdoba was pushed to completion in 1937 as the longest continuous piece of concrete pavement in South America, 574 miles long, and construction was advanced on a number of other important main highways. Peru, adopting asphalt construction as naturally indicated by the presence of a large refined oil production, extended the coast road step by step north and south of Lima and inland to Oroya, ascending the face of the Andes through the intricate line of the Infiernillo.

Meanwhile, government agencies were distinctly active in continuing international plans for concluding an initial trunk line highway which should be the central stem from which branches could be extended in every country to constitute national integrated highway systems.

At the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of the Peace, held at Buenos Aires at the end of 1936, a convention on the Pan American Highway was signed and later ratified by the interested countries, including the United States, and subsequent governmental action in practically all of the countries has been predicated on the general commitments contained in this convention.

The inevitable repercussions of the outbreak of World War II encouraged rather than retarded activities. In 1939 and 1940 an augmented interest occurred all along the line, which had its greatest exemplification in action by the Congress of the United States in December 1941, when funds to

the extent of \$20,000,000 were authorized to aid the countries of Central America and Panama in constructing the section of the highway from the southern frontier of Mexico to the Panama Canal. The United States government offered to pay two-thirds of the cost, provided each of the other countries would pay its appropriate third. With the entrance of the United States as a belligerent and the emergence of the United Nations, the work of closing gaps across unconstructed sections in Central America was speeded up in the face of extraordinary difficulties, and road programs were extended so far as war conditions permitted in practically all of the countries, especially in Brazil, Bolivia, Venezuela, Peru, and Chile.

In a brief account like this of the road movement in Latin America during the last

quarter century there is no place for comparative statistics, but a résumé of present conditions and prospects will serve to place the period where it should stand in the history of road building in Latin America.

To the close of World War I it is apparent that little or no national road building of consequence along modern lines had been accomplished, and highway construction to fixed line and profile in accordance with predetermined standards, with adequate drainage and surfaces suitable for modern traffic, has been confined largely to the period since about 1920.

Neglecting then the large mileage of new roads which have been opened, the common dirt roads, and those surfaced only with selected or temporary materials and considering only those classifications which represent



Courtesy U. S. Public Roads Administration

ON THE ROAD FROM RIO DE JANEIRO TO PETROPOLIS

Brazil has projected a magnificent system of highways, already partially constructed.

construction in accordance with modern engineering and building techniques, we find that very substantial progress has been made.

In Mexico, Central America, and Panama, the principal route, called the Inter-American Highway, is 47 percent paved and has 930 miles, representing another 28 percent, in condition for all-weather traffic—much of it ready for the final wearing course of bituminous or concrete type. Practically all major bridges are completed and in addition, especially in Mexico, a large mileage of other principal and tributary roads has been built and a considerable part paved.

In Colombia systems of national and departmental highways have been designated and reports indicate 725 miles of pavement and 8,250 miles of all-weather road.

Brazil has projected a magnificent system of construction for the future and in a remarkably brief period has built 263 miles of pavement and over 2,500 miles of all-weather road. All of this construction is of course in addition to the paved streets of cities and towns. Similarly, rural paved highways in Argentina aggregate over 2,100 miles.

Ecuador has 48 miles of paved road and 455 miles of all-weather road.

Paraguay, among the last to begin active operations, has 120 miles of paved and nearly 150 miles of all-weather road. Peru, actively pushing a road program, has close to 1,200 miles of rural highways paved.

The general status of highway improvement throughout Latin America is perhaps as well indicated by results obtained on the Pan American Highway system as by any other simple index. The last reports available indicate the following conditions respectively on the Inter-American Highway

between Panama and the United States and on the Pan American Highway system south of Panama:

Inter-American Highway—United States to Panama

Classification	Miles	Percent
Paved	1,557	46.7
All-weather	930	27.9
Dry weather	280	8.4
Trails	567	17.0

Pan American Highway System in South America

Classification	Miles	Percent
Paved	2,015	24.9
All-weather	4,147	51.2
Dry weather	1,646	20.3
Trails	289	3.6
	8,097	100.0

This system of connected roads does not stand isolated in any single country but represents a principal highway around which in practically every country substantial advances toward a highway system have been made. Especially in El Salvador, Peru, and Argentina, there has been outstanding progress in extending lateral and tributary paved and all-weather roads in addition to the work done on the principal routes of the Pan American Highway system, and in these countries the development of connected highway systems has far passed the initial stage. In thus creating national highway systems with regular programs of construction on which a considerable mileage has in practically every country been substantially completed, the road construction done by the American republics represents the most commendable and praiseworthy result of a single quarter century of activities.

The Silver Anniversary Dinner in Honor of the Director General

"I cannot let this opportunity pass without a word of appreciation of Dr. Rowe's quarter century of outstanding service as Director General of the Pan American Union.

"Dr. Rowe's contribution to the cause of inter-American friendship and understanding is deserving of the highest honors. His belief in the ideals of Pan Americanism, his qualities of statesmanship and leadership and his ability to overcome obstacles to unity and cooperation among the twenty-one American republics have been of major importance in preparing the way for hemispheric solidarity."

This was the message sent by President Truman to be read at the dinner given in honor of Dr. L. S. Rowe's silver anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union by the Pan American Society of the United States and twenty-three associated organizations. The brilliant scene was the grand ballroom of the Waldorf-Astoria in New York, where six hundred persons had assembled—Latin American diplomats and consuls general, representatives of the Department of State, men and women prominent in cultural and business relations between the Americas.

The Very Reverend Robert I. Gannon, S.J., President of Fordham University, offered the invocation before the dinner, saying:

Almighty and Eternal God, look down tonight with favor on one of Thy servants who has spent three quarters of a century in Thy service, more than half a century in the interests of peace, and a quarter of a century in the direction of a great social instrument for better understanding. A lawyer who can see that peace is the work of justice, a student of political science who under-

stands that the welfare of his country depends upon the unity of the New World, he has devoted more than forty years to the great mission of seeing that justice was done in Latin America. Bless him and us, his friends, and these Thy gifts which we are about to receive from Thy bounty through Christ, Our Lord, Amen.

At the close of the dinner Mr. Frederick E. Hasler, who, as president of the Pan American Society, was presiding, rose to speak. He said:

When in London this summer I visited the exhibition of the Royal Academy in Burlington House. Glancing through the catalogue, I noticed on the first page a quotation from our own William James, which said, "The great use of life is to spend it for something that will outlast it." How true that is, I thought, as I wandered through the galleries. These beautiful works of art will unquestionably outlast the people who are now admiring them. In the course of time, however, this artistry too will crumble to dust just as surely as did many of the stately buildings surrounding the exhibition hall when they were leveled by enemy bombs.

A life devoted to useful living, such as that of our friend, Dr. Leo S. Rowe, however, has a permanence which nothing can destroy—neither time nor even atomic bombs. Tonight we are gathered here—Ambassadors, Ministers, Consuls General, representatives of the State, Church and University, leaders of industry and the professions—to do honor and give thanks to Almighty God for the accomplishments in the life work of Dr. Rowe.

For many years the words "Pan Americanism" represented only a lofty, intangible ideal, a hemisphere relationship devoutly to be wished for, but generally regarded as too Utopian ever to be turned into useful channels. It was an inspiring theme for orators and writers, but in the opinion of the public it was visionary and impractical.

With the birth of the Pan American Union in 1890, the first concrete steps were initiated to take Pan Americanism out of the dream stage in which it had been conceived as a continental policy by

DINNER OF THE PAN AMERICAN SOCIETY AND ASSOCIATED ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

This demonstration in honor of Dr. L. S. Rowe on his silver anniversary as Director General took place at the Waldorf-Astoria in New York.

Simon Bolívar and, so to speak, bring it down to earth.

It was twenty-five years ago this month that Dr. Rowe, after having successfully filled many governmental posts in connection with Latin American affairs, became Director General of the Pan American Union. That marked the real beginning of the transformation of Pan Americanism from a purely oratorical ideal into a living, vital force for hemisphere security and progress.

Under Dr. Rowe's inspiring leadership, the Union has become an institution of world-wide importance, transcending the expectations of its most optimistic founders. Its powerful influence for peace has enabled the American nations to demonstrate to the rest of the world that it is possible for countries of different origins and speech to live together in amity and mutual helpfulness. And I might add that recent developments in science have made it a matter of self-preservation for the rest of the world to follow our example.

Among the hosts at this dinner, we of the Pan American Society have a special niche in our hearts for the man we honor tonight—a place we hold sacred for old friends for whom we have high esteem and deep affection. He is one of the founder members of our Society and was a member of our first Executive Committee. He is now one of our Honorary Presidents and one of that eminent group we refer to almost with reverence as the "Elder Statesmen" of the Society. He is a fountainhead of inspiration and guidance to us.

As Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. Rowe prepared the soil and planted the seed from which grew the real "good neighbor" policy that insured the military and economic security of the Americas. It sped victory by giving the United Nations a never-failing source of vital raw materials. No one will question that the solidarity of the Americas, thus achieved, has been a most important factor in laying the foundation for a world of lasting peace. It was the "spade work" done by Dr. Rowe which made all this possible.

Latin American appreciation of Dr. Rowe's labors is attested by the many decorations which our



Courtesy of I. B. M.

sister republics have been proud to confer on him. I regret that time will not permit me to name all the distinguished orders he has received from the Governments of Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Haiti, Panama, and Venezuela.

Speaking of decorations, many of you will recall that in 1940 our Society awarded its gold insignia to Dr. Rowe. I had the honor of making the presentation in the lovely patio of the stately Pan American Union building in Washington. I should like to repeat here part of what I said at that time:

"During your long administration, your unfailing courage and steadfastness of purpose, strengthened by sublime belief in the ideals which brought the Union into being, have overcome the inevitable disappointments that always block the path of the unselfish public servant and statesman. Not once did you falter in your determination to accomplish what skeptics thought impossible—the welding together in bonds of sincere friendship of the governments and peoples of the Western Hemisphere for the common good.

"The respect and esteem in which you are held by your fellow directors and all who know you come of no momentary enthusiasm for a deed accomplished and soon forgotten; they are born of a recognition that in you rest those qualities that stand for the greatest asset of mankind—character



and dependability. . . . Today our twenty-one countries are united as never before; united in a determination that the ideals our forefathers lived, worked and died for shall survive, and not be trampled underfoot by the iron heel of the ruthless tyrant and aggressor."

That statement was true five years ago and it is eminently true today when Pan Americanism—after standing the test of the most terrible war in history—is ready to attain its fullest flower in the years of peace which lie ahead.

Dr. Rowe, in wishing you, on behalf of all the Pan American associations assembled here tonight, many more years of health, happiness and constructive effort in the career you have made your life work, I can think of no more fitting way to conclude this humble tribute than by saying that your accomplishments in the cause of inter-American friendship and security are a monument of inspiration to all who look forward to the day when the nations of the whole world will enjoy the peace and progress your leadership has helped to bring to the Western Hemisphere.

Mr. Hasler then introduced His Excellency Dr. Julián R. Cáceres, Ambassador of Honduras, who spoke as follows:

In connection with the cordial messages sent by distinguished Presidents of American nations to

Dr. L. S. Rowe, to be read later at this banquet given in his honor by the Pan American Society to celebrate his twenty-five years of diligent labor as Director General of the Pan American Union, permit me to say that my Government offered hearty congratulations to Dr. Rowe on September 1, his silver anniversary at the Union, and that it is also conferring on him the Order of Francisco Morazán, the national hero of our country.

The Government of Honduras thus recognizes the productive labor of Dr. Rowe in the advancement of Pan Americanism and expresses its gratitude likewise to the men of noble mind who, from one end of the continent to the other, strive for the moral unity of the American Republics, for fraternal understanding, and for peace and solidarity among our countries.

On this festive occasion in honor of Dr. Rowe, who strives so patiently and assiduously to foster the ideals of America, we are in fact reaffirming the doctrine of continentality, of community of interests through culture, of solidarity in war and in peace, in security and in the defense of the Americas that are our homeland. We are many millions of people, living from one end of the continent to the other, but we are one and indivisible in democracy and liberty, in the hope that shines like a rainbow from the Hudson to the Magellan.

Raised high by our devoted hands, the flags of the twenty-one American Republics floated proudly together in the days of combat as they now float in days of peace, mingled with the banners of the other United Nations waving victoriously over nazi Germany and totalitarian Japan.

The presence of all America is felt at this demonstration of admiration and esteem for Dr. Rowe, for while the Discoverer located our Continent on the map of the world where distance is the measure, the creators of good neighborliness, among whom the guest of the evening has played an outstanding part, have placed it and keep it in the world of the spirit, where it is supported by the strength of American ideals.

The hearts of the people of the Americas rejoice tonight with Dr. Rowe and for him. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, which I have the honor of representing this evening, offers him its congratulations and cordial applause; the ladies present at this banquet shed luster on the occasion, as the stars of the twenty-one Republics shine in the Pan American firmament.

The next speaker was Dr. George William McClelland, President of the University of Pennsylvania, Dr. Rowe's alma mater. Dr. McClelland said:

As spokesman for the University of Pennsylvania this evening I should like first of all to express appreciation of the courtesy that has made it possible for Dr. Rowe's university to be represented on this program of tributes to one of its most illustrious alumni and, for years, one of the distinguished members of its faculty.

Although he is now in every sense a citizen of the Western Continent—even of the world—we like to think of Dr. Rowe as a Philadelphian, for although born in Iowa, he was educated in the schools of the Quaker City and for many years resided there. Conservative Philadelphia, always mindful of the past as well as the present, still considers him one of its own.

Education also carries its influence upon the formative years of a man's life and we like to recall that Dr. Rowe received both his undergraduate education and his preparation for the legal profession at the University of Pennsylvania. Fortunately for his alma mater the results of his training were immediately put into direct service of the University, for in the same year in which he qualified for the degree of Bachelor of Laws he started his life-interest in government by joining our instructional staff in Political Science. For twenty-two years he served as a member of the faculty of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce and of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, one of the University's ablest scholars and influential teachers. His University is grateful to him, too, for an educational contribution that reached beyond the classroom, for as a department head he created a strong instructional program which has been built upon over the years, and in faculty councils did much to chart the course of the Wharton School.

Dr. Rowe's strictly academic experience is, of course, less widely known than his later achievements on a far wider stage. Yet, the parts of his career fit together logically and harmoniously. A great teacher is, after all, an evangelist, a crusader, with a strong belief in the importance of his subject and an impelling desire to talk persuasively about it. A few years ago one of our retiring professors was being honored as he was finishing a long career of service to Pennsylvania students. An exceedingly modest man, he

said simply, when called upon to speak in farewell to his assembled colleagues and friends, "I always talked as if somebody were listening." Dr. Rowe was such a teacher. Students listened and were stimulated. Since he left our campus, larger audiences have listened and been taught the gospel that is most in his heart.

The University could not hold Dr. Rowe in the face of his wider mission. Although he started with us as an instructor in municipal government his interests were much broader from the first. Beginning with his first appointment in 1895 he traveled for twenty years over both Americas preaching the need for a better understanding between them and doing much to provide the means for such an understanding. All this you know.

Dr. Rowe moved from us many years ago, but what he built into the University of Pennsylvania survives. "Great teachers make great universities." If this were the appropriate occasion I could say much of the outstanding contributions his University has made in the inter-American field during the intervening years and of its plans for the future. Back of them all and not forgotten is Dr. Rowe's influence. You will pardon us, I am sure, for thus claiming a share in him and in pointing with pride to his splendid achievements as those of a University of Pennsylvania man. Other universities have honored themselves by honoring him, but in a very real sense he belongs to the University in Philadelphia which he served so long and with such distinction.

Dr. Rowe, your University congratulates you and wishes for you many more full and happy years.

The Honorable Tom Connally, Senator from Texas and Chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, was then presented to the audience. He delivered an eloquent address, saying:

I am pleased to be with you tonight as the guest of the Pan American Society of the United States, to join you in paying a tribute to Dr. Leo S. Rowe, who for twenty-five years has been the distinguished director of the Pan American Union.

But first let me say a word about the splendid activities of your Pan American Society.

Your group and hundreds of others like it throughout our land have made a genuine contribution toward the winning of the war by encouraging a better understanding of inter-American and world affairs. Now that the lights of civilization

are being relit I am confident that this process of free discussion, which we cherish so much in the Americas, will do much to ensure that they will not soon again be plunged into darkness. Peace, if it is to be lasting, implies more than the mere absence of armed conflict. It involves on the part of all of us an understanding of other countries and other peoples, their way of life, their problems, ideals, and aspirations.

"And ye shall know the truth," says the Bible, "and the truth shall make you free."

To some of us here tonight, the Pan American Union and the concept that lies behind it is something that has been with us for a long time. That may be, indeed it *is*, a wonderful testimonial to the Union. It means that its principles have been accepted in the United States as well as in all of the other Republics of the New World. . . .

The Pan American Union is . . . entrusted with certain international obligations of great importance. Thus, it has functioned as a permanent secretariat at eight International Conferences of American States. At the recent conference at Mexico City, it was agreed that the Governing Board of the Union, which previously had not acquired political functions, should be endowed with the power to take action on all matters affecting the inter-American system and the welfare of the American Republics.

The development of the Union thus has kept step with, and represents, a tangible record of the growing desire of the peoples of the Hemisphere to enter together into a closer relationship. It is a symbol of a mutual desire for cooperation which some day may lead us into our common inheritance, and without which we would certainly sink together into a common grave.

Now in discussing briefly the purposes and principles of the Pan American Union, I have been laying the groundwork for a few words about our guest of honor. . . .

I must admit that when I think of the Union, and of Dr. Rowe, I find that in my mind's eye I see them invariably in juxtaposition. In my mind's eye there appears the beautiful façade of the Pan American building which so appropriately mirrors the idea that persists within, and then again, framed on the front steps, appears the figure of Dr. Rowe. It is as though the two were inseparable. Perhaps they are. A quarter of a century is a long period in the life of any man, and as a result of this association and dedication, and of all the days that Dr. Rowe has devoted

to the work of the Union, it is reasonable to assume that he has a very special feeling for its activities, as those who work with him have a special feeling for him.¹

So long as the idea persists and gathers force that the people of this hemisphere must live together in harmony and peace, I do not think that in some distant future it will be necessary to memorialize the work of Dr. Rowe. Something better than a monument has been builded. We salute him.

I offered the thought a moment ago that the development of the Pan American Union had kept step with the emerging aspirations of the peoples of this hemisphere, and in this connection it is sometimes difficult for us to realize at what a pace progress has been made, what a rocky path we have negotiated in recent years.

Our sense of the passage of time deceives us. The existence of our own United States, in terms of time, is little more than the life span of three middle-aged members of this audience added together. Dom Pedro II of Brazil died less than sixty years ago. San Martín, who freed the people of Argentina from their European masters, died less than 100 years ago, and there are men and women who are alive today who knew his world, albeit the world of his embittered and declining years. Even Simón Bolívar left us in the flesh only a little more than a century ago.

To us, these men seem legendary; actually they are almost our contemporaries. And what great events they and others like them have set in motion! "I have a deep faith in the future of America," said the exiled San Martín on his death-bed, and we have only to look about us at the growth of the Inter-American System to realize that such faith is being fulfilled.

I am confident that it will continue to be fulfilled. There are those, of course, who say that racial, linguistic, and religious variations between the peoples of North and South America, the different sources of their cultures, may make effective cooperation between them difficult if not impossible.

But actually such differences are the spice and the elixir of life, and the integration of differences is an achievement from which both, or all, participants in a venture emerge with a fuller, richer point of view. You cannot very well integrate *likenesses*; you can merely add them together. The

¹ This was manifested in a staff party and gift on August 31.—EDITOR.

result is twice the likeness you had before. You have nothing new. On the other hand when you have combined and integrated two *differing* points of view you possess the best of two, or more than two, contributions and you have exercised a creative function.

It has been written, and this is a profound sentiment, that "the essential feature of a common thought is not that it is *held* in common, but that it is *produced* in common."

My friends, there I think we have the answer; I think this is the reason why we in the Americas have been able to develop the habit of working together to solve our common problems. The work on the problems has been done *together* and the solutions achieved *together*. Let us label this point No. 1.

My second point is a logical extension and amplification of the first. The willingness to cooperate must be implemented by appropriate machinery. We have succeeded in developing this machinery. For instance, in the last twenty-five years there have been no less than 150 technical conferences.

The Pan American Union itself was created more than fifty years ago, some twenty years before the emergence of the League of Nations, and this is indeed a tribute to the vision of the men and women of the New World. . . .

The flexibility of the inter-American system was magnificently demonstrated during World War II when the New World rose to thrust back the threat of Fascist aggression. . . .

Still further steps were taken at Mexico City to reorganize and strengthen the inter-American system so that it might meet the challenging problems which the next decades are certain to bring. With the Foreign Ministers meeting regularly every year, and with the conferences of American States held at four-year rather than five-year intervals, the tempo of inter-American cooperation should be greatly accelerated. Moreover, the creation of the Inter-American Economic and Social Council and the granting of additional authority to the Pan American Union should broaden considerably the scope of activity of the Union. No doubt additional streamlining will take place at the Bogotá Conference in 1946.

My third point is that we have agreed upon a core of common ideals which form the basis of the Inter-American System. Without ideals, organizations and institutions wither, leaving behind them as a residue only the dead and cold stones of the architectural structure. On the other hand, ideas

or ideals will survive all the stones that mankind can painfully put together.

We all know how important are the ideals of liberty, tolerance, and the dignity and the rights of the individual which so often have been reiterated at inter-American conferences.

Our common belief in freedom, of course, stems back across the decades to the time of Washington and Bolívar.

We have, moreover, united on many occasions to denounce intervention, aggression and conquest, and reaffirm our faith in such concepts as law and order, the equality of states, the sanctity of treaty obligations and international cooperation. These are the principles of conduct which guide our relations with one another. . . .

Now let me add a fourth and final point. In the Western Hemisphere, the facts of geography bind us together and what happens here is peculiarly the concern of all of us. But the world is smaller than it was. Our ancestors who lived on the shores of the Mediterranean envisaged the world as an enclosed sea. They discovered then that beyond the Pillars of Hercules were greater seas. The world for them began to extend enormously and their horizon of experience finally took in the whole globe. Now a reverse process is in operation.

The time taken to traverse the distance between two points in space has become vastly reduced. By airplane London is now only a few hours away and, relatively speaking, Europe and Asia have drawn close to our shores. The Eastern Hemisphere is merging with the Western. It is therefore fitting that the inter-American system providing for the peaceful settlement of disputes and the ideology that underlies it, should be related to the world-wide system, the groundwork of which was laid at the San Francisco Conference. . . .

This does not mean in any way that we have weakened the effectiveness of the inter-American peace machinery outlined in the Act of Chapultepec. On the contrary, it has been strengthened by the specific recognition in the Charter of the useful role which can be played in the settlement of disputes of a local or regional character by regional agencies. Moreover, in the case of the occurrence of an armed attack, the American Republics always have the right of individual and collective self-defense until the Security Council has taken the necessary measures to restore peace and security.

In recognizing, as it does, the permanent authority of the Security Council in enforcement action, as well as the inherent right of self-defense against attack, the Charter thus paves the way for the effective integration of our regional system with the wider world system of security. . . .

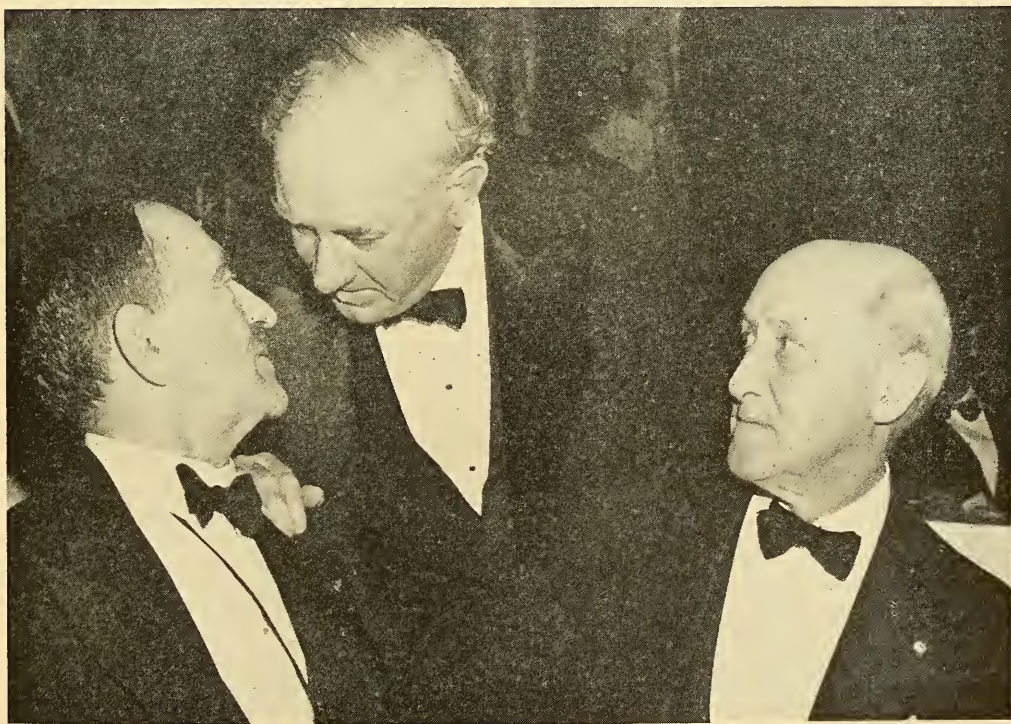
Thus, I believe, we have a map for the future. I think we have builded well, and the great men of the past would, could they be with us now, have little cause to think that their struggles have been in vain.

We are building for the future, but we are not forgetting the heroic past. In the spirit of Washington, Bolívar, San Martín and O'Higgins we are endeavoring to make secure their conceptions of liberty and constitutional government. To their ambition we are adding that of hemispheric security and hemispheric solidarity in behalf of peace. Upon this rock we shall erect an enduring structure. We shall not fail.

Dr. Rowe replied in heartfelt words to all these congratulations and expressions of good will. He said:

I come to you tonight with a heart overflowing with gratitude, and under an obligation I can never hope to repay. It would require eloquence far beyond anything that I possess, adequately to express my appreciation of the honor you have done me. When I stop to consider the little I have been able to accomplish as compared with the goal set, I am only too conscious of the distance to that objective.

Permit me to take this opportunity to express to the officers and members of the Pan American Society, and especially to your President, my beloved friend, Frederick E. Hasler, to his predecessor, John L. Merrill, and to the very able Secretary of the Society, John J. Clisham, my sincere gratitude for their constant and unflinching helpfulness.



Courtesy of O. I. A. A.

DR. L. S. ROWE, DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, MR. FREDERICK E. HASLER, PRESIDENT OF THE PAN AMERICAN SOCIETY, AND SENATOR TOM CONNALLY OF TEXAS

Under their able and energetic direction, the influence of the Society has extended far beyond the limits of the United States and become an important factor in strengthening the ties between the people of this country and those of Latin America. My warm thanks also go to the officers and members of the many organizations that have joined with the Pan American Society in this heart-warming demonstration of friendship.

My greatest debt, however, is to the Governments of the American republics, which have accorded to me the privilege of laboring in a great cause, a cause that means so much to the present and to the future of the Western Hemisphere. May I avail myself of this opportunity, therefore, to make public acknowledgment of my debt to each and every member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union during this quarter century, another debt I can never hope to repay. Throughout these years not only have I enjoyed the privilege of close ties of friendship with the members of the Board, but they have given me the full benefit of their counsel and support. I should also like to pay tribute to the members of the staff of the Pan American Union for their devoted and unflinching service.

Permit me also to avail myself of this occasion to express a deep sense of obligation to the University of Pennsylvania for the opportunity that was accorded me to devote myself to the Latin American field. I am grateful to the President of the University for his presence here this evening.

The last twenty-five years have witnessed profound changes in the international situation on the American Continent. In 1920 we were in the midst of an exceedingly difficult period in inter-American relations. The policy of the United States had aroused suspicion and even antagonism throughout Latin America. It was only after the Montevideo Conference of 1933, when the United States unreservedly subscribed to the doctrine of non-intervention in the internal affairs of our sister Republics, that a new period of confidence and cooperation was inaugurated. The ensuing twelve years have been a period of increasing unity of purpose and policy, which found its highest expression at the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace held at Mexico City, in February and March of this year.

By the Act of Chapultepec adopted at that Conference, the American republics assumed full and collective responsibility in resisting all aggression on this continent, whether such aggression

proceeds from a non-American power or from an American state. In short, the American republics made themselves jointly responsible for the maintenance of the peace and security of the Western Hemisphere. The full significance of the conclusions reached at Mexico City became apparent at the Conference on International Organization recently held at San Francisco. Through the united action of the delegations of the American nations it was possible not only to integrate the Pan American system into the world organization, but at the same time to preserve the existing machinery for the maintenance of the peace and security of the Western Hemisphere.

If I were asked to indicate the greatest service that the inter-American system has performed and is today performing, I should say that it is the demonstration of the fact that peace has a far deeper meaning than the mere absence of conflict. Peace is a positive, dynamic concept involving international cooperation and mutual helpfulness.

For the world organization that will begin to function in the near future this is one of the most important lessons. Another of equal significance, which the experience of the American republics has made evident, is that machinery for the maintenance of peace is of little value unless it is vitalized and its energy supplied by a "will to peace" of the masses of the people.

Today we can see more clearly than ever before the high mission that has been entrusted to the New World. By their example and by their ever increasing influence in world affairs, the Americas are called upon to maintain and develop ever higher standards of international dealing and to demonstrate that through cooperation and mutual helpfulness the interests of all nations are best subserved.

The principles of international conduct developed in the Americas must become universal in their application. Thus and thus only can we be assured of that long period of peace for which all the peoples of the earth are longing. Thus will the Americas make some return for the many blessings that have been showered upon them, and thus will they perform their greatest service to humanity and to the progress of civilization.

Among the messages of congratulation read by Mr. Hasler were the following:

It is with the greatest satisfaction that I join in the tribute that the organizations interested in the strengthening of inter-American relations are so

justly paying to Dr. Leo S. Rowe. His unremitting efforts during the quarter century in which he has directed the Pan American Union so brilliantly and successfully have won for him the respect and applause of our countries. His innumerable friends in Chile unite with me in thinking of him with great affection on this day.

JUAN ANTONIO RÍOS
President of Chile

Cordial congratulations on the completion of twenty-five years in your position as Director General of the Pan American Union.

ALBERTO LLERAS
President of Colombia

In the name of the government of Costa Rica, and in my own, I take pleasure in joining in this well deserved tribute to the excellent work done by Dr. Rowe for the cause of Pan Americanism. He has devoted all his efforts and all his powers to his task.

TEODORO PICADO
President of Costa Rica

Permit me to take this opportunity once more to express my deep admiration of Dr. Rowe, one of the most zealous and devoted servants of the cause of inter-American friendship. I shall never forget this true apostle whom I came to know and esteem while I was representing my country in Washington.

For my part, I believe that our continent will always be indebted to this honorable man, who has devoted twenty-five years of his life to the advancement of the ideal cherished more than a century ago by the illustrious Alexandre Pétion, the first President of the Republic of Haiti, and by Simon Bolívar, the Liberator.

ELIE LESCOT
President of Haiti

It was hardly six months ago that the representatives of the American Republics, whom Chapultepec Castle had the honor of welcoming during their labors, put on record their special and fervent tribute to the services that you have rendered during the greater part of your life to the cause of continental cooperation and harmony. These, as it was justly said at that time, have won you the gratitude of all the American nations, which are confident that you will continue "your incomparable efforts in behalf of the Pan American cause."

I take pleasure in joining in this well merited

tribute and in uniting in the well deserved homage that the same nations that took part in the recent conference in Mexico are paying you today on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of your admirable service as Director General of the Pan American Union.

MANUEL ÁVILA CAMACHO
President of Mexico

Permit me to reiterate on the occasion of your silver anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union the expression of my cordial friendship and gratitude for your noble and productive labors on behalf of the Americas. Your sincere friend,

A. SOMOZA
President of Nicaragua

On the occasion of the celebration of Dr. L. S. Rowe's twenty-fifth anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union, I take pleasure in joining in this continental expression of congratulations.

Dr. Rowe's earnest work in the Pan American Union testifies to the high aim of inter-American cooperation that has ever guided him in working to make the Union the chief organ of inter-American friendship.

JOSÉ LUIS BUSTAMANTE Y RIVERO
President of Peru

In connection with your twenty-fifth anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union, I send you my greetings and congratulations and express the admiration of the government and people of Venezuela for your upright, brilliant, and indefatigable service in behalf of the ideals of cooperation and fraternity of the American nations that inspire this noble institution.

ISAÍAS MEDINA ANGARITA
President of Venezuela

On the twenty-fifth anniversary of the fruitful work that you have carried on in the institution that unites the American Republics in cordial friendship, I offer you my heartiest congratulations.

JOSÉ VICENTE TRUJILLO
Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ecuador

I most sincerely regret my inability to be present at the dinner with which the Pan American Society will celebrate Dr. Leo S. Rowe's twenty-fifth anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union.

EMILIO GARCÍA GODOY
Ambassador of the Dominican Republic

Hearty congratulations. Your sincere friend,
 GUILLERMO SEVILLA SACASA
Ambassador of Nicaragua

The importance of Dr. Rowe's work in the Pan American Union is well known to all of us.

CELSO R. VELÁZQUEZ
Ambassador of Paraguay

Regret exceedingly that a sudden indisposition prevents me from giving you and the Pan American Society my heartfelt congratulations today. Best wishes and kindest personal regards.

ALEJANDRO FERNÁNDEZ
Consul General of Venezuela, New York

Heartiest congratulations and many happy returns of the day.

HUGH S. CUMMING
Director, Pan American Sanitary Bureau

Dr. Rowe has been a pioneer in harmonizing Pan American relations. The Pan American Union has been one of the outstanding achievements of the past twenty-five years, and as Director General, Dr. Rowe has worked selflessly year in and year out to make it an effective instrument for Pan American solidarity.

SAM A. LEWISOHN
Adolph Lewisohn and Sons

I shall always remember with gratitude Dr. Rowe's friendly and generous cooperation during my years in Washington. Please extend to him my warmest congratulations and affectionate regards.

WARREN LEE PIERSON
*President, All America Cables
 and Commercial Cables Co.*

No one is better acquainted than I am with the great and exceptional services of Dr. Rowe to the cause of Pan Americanism.

JOHN BASSETT MOORE
*Former Judge, Permanent Court of
 International Justice*

I deeply regret it is impossible for me to be at the dinner to pay tribute to Dr. Rowe for the long years in service which he has given to developing better understanding and closer friendship between the governments and peoples of the Pan American countries. He may feel proud of his work, which has affected so many people. He has set an example for all of us to endeavor to follow,

and the results of his efforts will stand as an international monument to him at all times.

THOMAS J. WATSON
*President, International Business
 Machines Corporation*

We wish to extend our most sincere congratulations to Dr. Rowe upon the celebration of his twenty-fifth anniversary as Director General of the Pan American Union.

ANTONIO PÉREZ
Manager, Hotel Reforma, Mexico City

It should not be forgotten that of all the private organizations dedicated to fostering inter-American friendship the Pan American Society of the United States is the dean. Founded in 1911, it has been active through the years and has given a warm welcome to many distinguished guests from all the American Republics. President Truman wrote to Mr. Hasler in the letter regretting his inability to be present at the dinner for Dr. Rowe, "I should like incidentally, to express to you and the members of the Pan American Society my appreciation of the effective work it has done in the past thirty-four years in fostering good will and understanding among the peoples of the Americas."

The organizations associated with the Pan American Society on this occasion were:

All America Friendship League; Alianza Inter-Americana Pro Defensa de America; American Brazilian Association; Americas Foundation; Argentine-American Chamber of Commerce; Avenue of the Americas Association; Bolivarian Society of the United States; Chile American Association; Colombian American Chamber of Commerce; Council for Inter-American Cooperation; Cuban Chamber of Commerce in the United States; Dominican Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Inter-American Safety Council; Liga Internacional de Acción Bolivariana; Mexican Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Mexico Pilgrims; National Foreign Trade Council; New York Board of Trade (International Trade Section); Pan American Coffee Bureau; Pan American Women's Association; Peruvian-American Association; Unión de Mujeres Americanas; and Venezuelan Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

Visitor from Costa Rica

ROSALIND LEE

How do Costa Rican girls dress? What games do school children play in San José? Do you have self-government in Costa Rican high schools? Do Costa Rican women vote?

Earnest boys and girls put these and similar questions to Miss Carmen Pagés, a university-trained young Costa Rican woman, on her recent visit to the high schools and junior college of Long Beach, California. This sudden and violent interest in a small Central American neighbor grew out of a series of informal talks, followed by youthful town-meeting discussions, which Miss Pagés gave at the suggestion of Dr. W. L. Klopp, the city Supervisor of Secondary Education.

Miss Pagés' four-weeks' visit made some six thousand Long Beach youngsters Costa Rica conscious, and she went on from there to other city schools throughout the United States. Through her the pupils are realizing an intimate and stimulating fellowship with a community that formerly seemed strange and remote, a reaction they would not have gained from the usual formal instruction or from their usual reading. With a new point of view, they developed a clearer vision of what international cooperation means. They returned to their Latin American studies with new zeal and insight and are looking forward to other visits from representatives of other countries to the south of the Rio Grande.

Dr. Klopp contends that a more realistic and understanding inter-American friendship may well begin with the pupils in our schools. Given intelligent help and encouragement, these children are eager to learn about the various peoples of the world. And they will be the good or bad neighbors of tomorrow.



Courtesy of Rosalind Lee

CARMEN PAGÉS

Visitor from Costa Rica, with some of her handiwork.

Acting on this premise, Dr. Klopp secured from the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs in Washington the services of Miss Pagés for utilization in an informal and personal way. She was not to deliver set and conventional lectures. She was not to stand up in a classroom and teach. In a friendly, unstilted manner, which is as old as civilization, she was to *visit* with the children and their teachers, satisfying their curiosity about her country and finding out interesting facts about theirs.

Before her arrival, Dr. Klopp asked his principals and teachers to arrange to make use of the Costa Rican visitor in their various activities and to give her and the students freedom to discuss informally pertinent matters about Latin America and particularly about Costa Rica which might come up. Inelastic schedules and specific classroom assignments were avoided so as to give her opportunities to meet individual teachers, pupils, and groups, as the need arose for such informal conferences.

Beginning in Polytechnic High, a school with some 3,000 students and 125 instructors, Miss Pagés visited language and Latin American history classes. She presented high lights of her own culture and contrasted them with other social, civic, and political patterns. She talked about schools in Costa Rica and how they differ from those in the United States. But always her discussion was related in some way to the regular work of the class and took on the vitality of simple, first-hand information growing out of the student interest already aroused.

In other high schools her work was similar. Spanish classes enjoyed her lively question-and-answer periods. History pupils wanted to know more about Latin American heroes and political activities. Basketball and football stars were keen to hear of prevailing sports in Central American schools.

Vivacious and friendly, Carmen Pagés adapted herself obligingly to the diverse demands of her hosts. She taught her national dance to a director of physical education and sang a Costa Rican folk song in assembly, by urgent request. She became an animated bureau of information, saying frankly that she didn't know the answers if questions went beyond her personal knowledge and experience.

Family life, standards of living, social customs, and economic problems and possibili-

ties became matters of vital concern when the children were able to discuss them directly with their Costa Rican guest. She lunched in their school cafeterias and went to see school films, class plays, and assembly stunts.

Pupils frequently asked, "How can we be better friends with Latin America, Miss Pagés?" And she stressed the importance of learning Spanish and the significance of travel, study, and an appreciation of the arts and music of other peoples. Through air travel and other means of peaceful and friendly communication, Costa Rica has progressed from a state of medieval backwardness to up-to-date modern conditions in the last century, she declared.

Adult education groups met Miss Pagés with as much enthusiasm as the younger students, and the whole community besieged Dr. Klopp with requests for her talks. She was guest of honor, for example, at a special program given jointly by the World Club and El Rojoro Club that stressed international relations. At business men's meetings she spoke about Costa Rican politics, trade, and goodwill ambassadors, criticizing freely certain types of insincere effort made by groups from the United States merely to curry favor with Latin America. "If you want us to like you, you will have to like us," she declared.

Teas and dinners were given in her honor, and she addressed church, civic, and professional groups of both men and women. At women's clubs her skill in lace-making attracted special interest, and she exhibited in a local library samples of her prize-winning lace, which won highest awards at a national art show in Costa Rica.

The granddaughter of a former president of Costa Rica, Miss Pagés has considerable knowledge of international law and has done special research on social problems for government officials. She traveled in Eng-

land, France, and Spain, studying international problems, and had lectured quite extensively in the United States before undertaking the work with schools.

Wanting to learn about Americans and perfect her English in a community where no other language would be spoken, she attended the State Normal School at Springfield, Missouri, and took her bachelor's degree there. Previously she had studied at the University of San José.

In a report to the Washington Office of Inter-American Affairs, Dr. Klopp said of Miss Pagés' work in Long Beach: "Her many personal appearances before school and community groups were received with such interest and enthusiasm that it left no doubt in my mind that such appearances far sur-

pass in significant values any other means of realizing the objectives desired. I am convinced that by such means more people—old and young, rich and poor—will come to understand better and appreciate more fully the cultural heritage of our southern friends and its value to our present and future generations."

We have realized, tragically enough, how hatred of other countries and peoples was instilled by the Nazis into the minds and hearts of German children. Such propaganda can be overcome only through the cultivation of understanding and goodwill in the schools of today. Visitors from other lands will help fundamentally in this task of creating a sane and logical basis for world peace.

Bolivian Sojourn

HAZEL S. RODDEWIG

AN ENGLISH family was traveling on the same boat with us. When Mr. Phelps heard that this was our first trip to South America, he said, "Oh, you will come back! I have been here for sixteen years." He and his family were bound for Talara, on the coast of Peru, and we were going to Bolivia. "English people are far better colonists than Americans," Mr. Phelps said. "We have the habit, and have learned to stay away from home better than you have." The Phelps family was returning from a three months' vacation. Mrs. Phelps said one day, when we were up on the deck talking, "When we leave Peru, we are all money and no clothes, but when we return, we are all clothes and no money!"

We left the boat at Antofagasta, Chile, which seemed very gray and dreary. The railroad journey to Bolivia was broken by stopping off several days at Chuquicamata, where the altitude is around 10,000 feet. Here the workings of the Anaconda Copper Mining Company stand out like giants on a barren plain, for there are no trees in sight. It is most interesting to see large steam shovels dig the ore from the open pits.

The train to Bolivia runs only twice a week, so it is quite an event when it comes puffing through the town. It climbs and climbs over the Andes, until it passes Cón-dor, a small station which is 16,000 feet high. Nearly everyone has mountain sickness the first time he goes over the pass.



Courtesy of Hazel S. Roddewig

A BOLIVIAN COUNTRY SCENE

At long last, we arrived at our destination, Potosí.

The place not far away where we were to live was known as Huanchaca. Our house was a rambling old Spanish one, surrounded by a high wall. Some of the other engineers and their families lived near by.

The company mill was about a mile away at Velarde, and here too were several shops and the company offices. Up the hill at Pilaveri was the mine.

Our new home was a fifteen-room adobe house. It was obvious that a woman had not lived there for ten years—the manager had been a bachelor, or a man whose wife was not with him, probably because she could not endure the altitude. There was no rhyme or reason to the furnishings. At first I thought, "How can I ever stand it?" There were red drapes and red upholstered furniture, with the springs sticking out

everywhere; in the bedrooms, horrible draperies displaying big orange-colored flowers. We had many Morris chairs, with huge pillows that worked themselves out onto the floor after being used a little while, but after the front legs of the chairs were propped up by mail-order catalogs, they became more comfortable, and people could sit in them without having a crick in their backs. Another use for the helpful catalog!

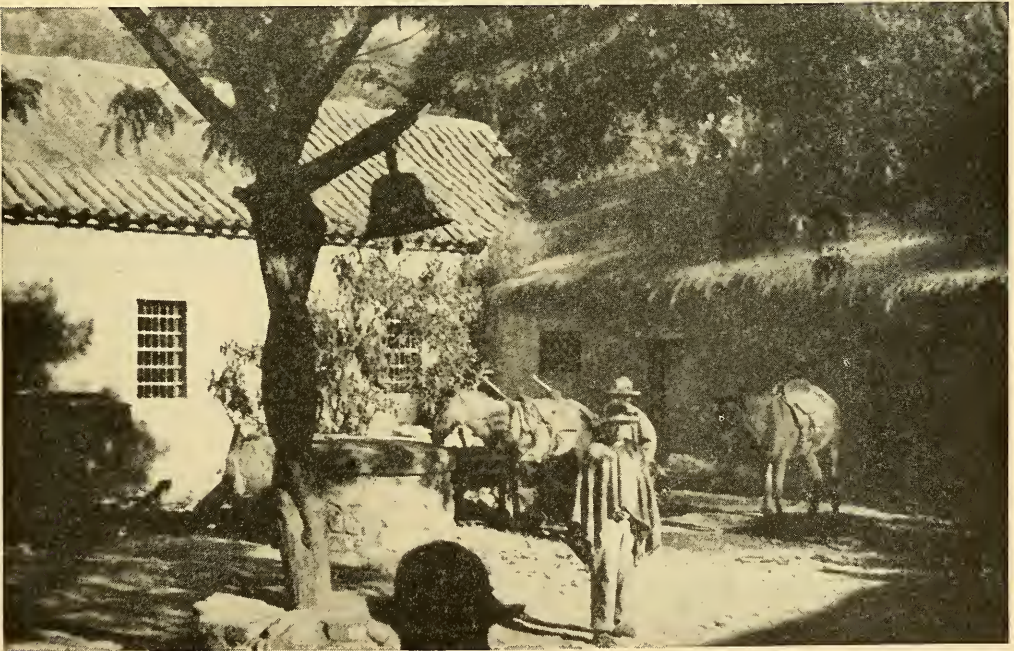
We lived with these nightmares of interior decoration for a few months. Finally, La Castellana, one of the local stores, had beautiful English chintz to sell, so practically all of it was bought for the *Gerencia*, the home of the manager. The furniture was rebuilt and recovered at the carpenter shop; the woodwork was painted ivory, the electric wiring was put within the partitions, instead of hanging on the walls, and the house really began to look like a home.

Managing a house of this size with three servants who could not understand any English was another problem. It not only involved the house and its care but the food and marketing. The sheer necessity of eating and getting food was my only common denominator with the servants—at least until I began to study Spanish with a teacher.

It is the custom for the mistress of the house to go to market, followed by one of the servant girls with a huge basket. The first few marketing ventures were horribly disappointing to one who was accustomed to American markets and packaging methods. Things were all spread out on the ground; the meats hung from racks. The vegetables had to be washed in a solution of potassium permanganate, and the meats wiped off before being put in the refrigerator. Because of the altitude in this part of Bolivia, the average temperature is around 60 degrees Fahrenheit, so things do not spoil readily.

The servant problem in Bolivia is almost as difficult as it is in the United States. There are many *cholas* who work as domestics, but when their men are prosperous, the wives do not care to exert themselves. Felicia was our cook for a long time. When she came to us, she proudly exhibited her recommendations, amongst them being one from a previous employer, the mine superintendent. The recommendation was written in English, and said, "Felicia is a very good cook, but she goes off periodically on a drunk, and is absent for several weeks at a time." Felicia didn't know English, and she said people always laughed when they read her recommendation.

Señora Matilda Carmona de Busch, the wife of the then Bolivian president, came on a good will tour to Potosí with quite a large group of people. We gave them a cocktail party, with about ninety guests. Afterwards we all went to a workmen's ball.



Courtesy of Hazel S. Roddewig

THE PATIO OF A BOLIVIAN HOUSE IN THE COUNTRY



Courtesy of Hazel S. Roddewig

STREET SCENE IN POTOSÍ

At the end of the street rises the famous Cerro de Potosí, renowned in colonial times for its wealth of silver.



Courtesy of Hazel S. Roddewig

THE HOUSE AT SAN PEDRO FINCA

From this 5,000-acre farm come large quantities of flour, pork, and wine.

Everyone danced the *cueca*, the national dance of Bolivia. It is somewhat like the minuet, with each one waving a handkerchief while dancing. The festivities went on until five o'clock in the morning. All of Bolivia loves to dance.

Many Jewish refugees came to Bolivia, with just a change of clothing and a few personal effects. Within a short space of time, it was very noticeable what a change

had been made, especially in La Paz. So much German was being spoken that when one went along the streets it almost gave one the feeling of being in a little Germany.

Soon there sprang up new bakeries, confectionery stores, fur and beauty shops, and dressmaking establishments. Some of the Bolivians enjoyed these new conveniences, but as one said, "We are an ease-loving people, and when Europeans come in and

start these stores, they take away our means of earning our own living."

Sucre is the old capital of Bolivia, a beautiful colonial Spanish town, where there is a great deal of culture. The Supreme Court still meets in Sucre, but the capital now used is La Paz, which is much more accessible. The road to Sucre goes over the Andes, and then along a river bed. In the rainy season it is impossible to go there by automobile, since the river bed is full of water. The Indians fix the roads at the end of the rainy season. They do not go in for extensive repairs, but just roll the rocks out of the way, until the winding roads are again passable. It is a pretty sight to see the wild jacarandá trees in bloom on the slopes of the mountains. From a distance, they look like little lavender bouquets.

There are many old homes in Sucre, and many distinguished families live there. The Urriolagoitias have a house like a museum. It contains many interesting antiques dating from the colonial days in Bolivia, lovely old

silver, antique furniture, and also many valuable paintings and artistic things brought from Europe when Señor Urriolagoitia was Minister to England many years ago.

Many of the Bolivians have had the same advantages that American and English people have had. Most of the well-to-do Bolivians were educated in France, and speak French as well as Spanish. It was the custom to go to France, because the exchange was more favorable for them there than in either the United States or England.

The region around Sucre is the California of Bolivia, and when a man retires, he often goes to Sucre to live. The altitude is 8,532 feet and the climate is mild. The city, regarded as the most handsome in the country, always remains the same in its old beauty. The buildings are added to or changed a little, but not torn down, as has been the case with many landmarks in the United States. The houses are built out to the sidewalk. A beautiful patio is always found inside, with flowers, trees, and lovely birds



Courtesy of Hazel S. Roddewig

THE MARKET AT SUCRE

in cages. There is privacy from the world.

Another interesting spot in Bolivia is the finca at Camargo, known as San Pedro. We went there in March for Easter, which came very early that year. The peaches and grapes were nice, but they were almost at the end of the season. San Pedro had been the property of the Ortiz family since 1550. The late President Ortiz of Argentina was of this family. Now the finca is run by a stock company controlled by Señor Simón Patiño, who is one of the world's richest men. Señor Julio Ortiz, the manager, was a most delightful host.

The land goes as far as one can see, and then beyond. There are 5,000 acres in the finca. It supplies much of Bolivia with flour, pork, and wine, of which a million bottles are made there each year.

Francisco, who was our gardener and general handy man about the place, must have a place in this tale. Whenever there was a turkey that was fat enough to kill, we always had guests, and Francisco usually had the job of killing the turkey. On one occasion, I told him to get the bird ready for the kitchen, and went into the house. Before he would do it, he sent Nicasia, one of the servants, to get almost a cupful of whiskey to give to the turkey. Nicasia got out of the house before I could stop her, and the whiskey was poured down the turkey's throat. When I asked Francisco why he gave the whiskey to the turkey, he said he wanted it *borracho*, or good and drunk, so it wouldn't feel the axe.

When it came to buying things, it was sometimes a little difficult, especially a gift for a birthday party. Mary wanted to purchase something for one of her little friends,

so we hunted around in the stores, but she failed to find anything to her liking. She came in from playing one day, and told me that she knew exactly what she wanted to take Ann for her birthday. In answer to my question, "Well, what is it?" She replied, "I want to take her my favorite little black chicken." The chicken was put in a sack, and Pinto, the chauffeur, proudly took Mary and her present to Ann's house. The chicken was the sensation of the party!

In the colony of company people who lived nearby, was a German boy, Gustav, who often came down to play. He had a very much coveted bicycle, and many longing looks were cast at it. Mary's bicycle had been left in Beverly Hills. Finally, Gustav said Mary might ride his. He evidently had not thought that she was capable of it, so he commented, using three languages in one sentence, "Mary can andar sehr gut."

Gustav's mother also had a habit of mixing up her languages. When talking to her one day, I was complaining about how difficult it was to cook meat in the high altitude. She said, "You must get a Dampfkessel," which I promptly did, and in the new pressure cooker, the meat was much more appetizing. The kettle came from one of our American mail-order houses, without which it is hard to live in the lonely, far-off places of the world.

While we were in Bolivia, our main longing had always been for the time when my husband's contract would be over, and we should be homeward bound. But when this time arrived and we were ready to leave, we had many feelings of regret. The Bolivians had endeared themselves to us; the servants in the house wept, and I wept.

Paintings by Héctor Poleo

Eighteen paintings by a distinguished Venezuelan artist were recently exhibited at the Pan American Union. They have the sculptural quality of pictures of the Italian Renaissance and are notable too for their warm earth colors and symbolic elements. The artist, who was born at Caracas in 1918, entered the School of Fine Arts there at the age of eleven, and eight years later went to Mexico to study mural painting. After visiting the United States, Colombia, and Ecuador he returned to Venezuela in 1940. In 1944 he came again to the United States, where he is now living. His paintings are owned by museums and collections in this country and Venezuela.



ABOVE: FECUNDITY. BELOW:
THE MOTHER AND THE
SOLDIER.

Registration of Treaties in the Pan American Union

MANUEL S. CANYES

Chief, Juridical Division of the Pan American Union

THE Eighth International Conference of American States, held at Lima in 1938, approved in paragraph 3 of Resolution XXIX a plan for the registration of treaties in the Pan American Union. The purpose of registration is "to keep the Governments of the Americas regularly and fully informed on the treaties which they may sign between themselves or with other States, and which may take effect in the future."

Complying with the procedure set forth in the plan, several Governments members of the Pan American Union have registered since December 1939 a total of 342 bilateral or multilateral treaties, conventions, and agreements.

This practice enables the Pan American Union to act as an inter-American treaty information center—a center which is at the service of all member countries and interested persons.

The method followed in each case is for the respective Government to transmit to the Pan American Union a certified copy of the treaty, convention, or agreement intended for registration, together with twenty-five additional uncertified copies. The Pan American Union thereupon issues a certifi-

cate of registration and transmits it to the Government registering the document, certifies the other copies and forwards one to each of the other members of the Union.

The benefits that could be derived from this procedure have not been fully realized because only a very limited number of Governments are following it at present. The universal adoption of this system would make it possible for each Government to receive from the Pan American Union certified copies of all the instruments signed by the other Governments and would make the service rendered by the Pan American Union far greater than at present.

In compliance with Article V of the plan mentioned above, the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union has published regularly a list of the treaties registered. The first list appeared in November 1941 together with the text of the plan, the second in September 1942, the third in September and October 1943, and the fourth in December 1944.

The complete list of the 59 treaties, conventions, and agreements registered with the Pan American Union from June 30, 1944 to June 30, 1945, is as follows:

TREATIES, CONVENTIONS, AND AGREEMENTS

Registered with the Pan American Union from June 30, 1944 to June 30, 1945 in Accordance with the Plan Approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States

BILATERAL AGREEMENTS

BRAZIL—UNITED STATES

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Notes of March 14, 1942	Mar. 14, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	261 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	July 17, 1942	Sept. 8, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	262 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Feb. 10, 1943	Feb. 10, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	263 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program, and notes exchanged.	Nov. 25, 1943	Jan. 1, 1944	Oct. 2, 1944	264 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the detail of a naval officer to Brazil.	Notes of Nov. 9, 1943 Sept. 29, 1944	Sept. 29, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	303 U.S.A.

COLOMBIA—UNITED STATES

Military service agreement and related note.	Notes of Jan. 27 and Feb. 12, 1944	Jan. 27, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	293 U.S.A.
Agreement continuing in effect the naval mission agreement of Nov. 23, 1938 as modified by the supplementary agreement of August 30, 1941, and extended by the agreement of Sept. 22 and Nov. 5, 1942 and further extended by the agreement of July 23 and August 7, 1943.	Notes of June 26 and July 18, 1944	Nov. 23, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	299 U.S.A.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC—UNITED STATES

Agreement approving a memorandum of understanding dated Nov. 1, 1943 relative to the purchase of Dominican food surpluses.	Notes of Dec. 17, 1943 and Feb. 11, 1944	Feb. 11, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	290 U.S.A.
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BILATERAL AGREEMENTS

ECUADOR—UNITED STATES

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Military mission agreement.	June 29, 1944	June 29, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	294 U.S.A.

GUATEMALA—UNITED STATES

Agreement renewing the agreement of July 17, 1943 regarding the detail of a military officer to serve as Director of the Polytechnic School of Guatemala.	Notes of Jan. 5 and 17, 1944	July 17, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	283 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the exchange of official publications.	Notes of March 23 and April 13, 1944	Mar. 23, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	298 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding an agricultural experiment station in Guatemala, and an exchange of notes.	July 15, 1944	July 15, 1944	April 16, 1945	308 U.S.A.

HAITI—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Notes of April 7, 1942	April 7, 1942	April 16, 1945	311 U.S.A.
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MEXICO—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding the payment for expropriated petroleum properties, and joint report.	Notes of Sept. 25 and 29, 1943	Sept. 29, 1943	April 16, 1945	306 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the establishment of an agricultural commission.	Notes of Jan. 6 and 27, 1944	Jan. 27, 1944	April 16, 1945	307 U.S.A.

PANAMA—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Notes of Dec. 31, 1942 and March 2, 1943	Mar. 2, 1943	April 16, 1945	314 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the lease of defense sites in Panama, with exchanges of notes.	May 18, 1942	May 11, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	275 U.S.A.

PANAMA—UNITED STATES (Cont.)

Agreement regarding the detail of a military officer to serve as adviser to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Panama, continuing in effect the agreement of July 7, 1942 as extended by the agreement of July 6 and August 5, 1943.	Notes of April 26 and May 18, 1944	July 7, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	300 U.S.A.
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PARAGUAY—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Notes of May 18 and 22, 1942	May 22, 1942	April 16, 1945	319 U.S.A.
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PERU—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding the establishment of the Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service in Peru.	Notes of May 19 and 20, 1943	May 20, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	276 U.S.A.
Agreement renewing, with an additional article, the naval mission agreement of July 31, 1940.	Notes of Jan. 31, Feb. 9, March 21 and 31, 1944	July 31, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	282 U.S.A.
Naval aviation mission agreement, renewing and amending the naval aviation mission agreement of July 31, 1940.	Notes of Jan. 31, Feb. 18, April 6, April 29, and May 2, 1944	July 31, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	288 U.S.A.
Military mission agreement.	July 10, 1944	July 10, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	295 U.S.A.

URUGUAY—UNITED STATES

Agreement regarding a health and sanitation program.	Notes of Oct. 1 and Nov. 1, 1943	Nov. 1, 1943	April 16, 1945	309 U.S.A.
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VENEZUELA—UNITED STATES

Military aviation mission agreement.	Jan. 13, 1944	Jan. 13, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	284 U.S.A.
Agreement extending with modifications the agreement regarding a health and sanitation program of Feb. 18, 1943.	Notes of June 28, 1944	July 1, 1944	April 16, 1945	313 U.S.A.

BILATERAL AGREEMENTS

UNITED STATES—AFGHANISTAN

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Agreement regarding the exchange of official publications.	Notes of Feb. 29, 1944	Feb. 29, 1944	April 16, 1945	305 U.S.A.

UNITED STATES—AUSTRALIA

Agreement regarding jurisdiction over prizes, and proclamation.	Notes of Nov. 10, 1942 and May 10, 1944	Aug. 12, 1944	April 16, 1945	304 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—BELGIUM

Agreement regarding jurisdiction over criminal offenses committed by the armed forces of the United States in the Belgian Congo.	Notes of March 31, May 27, June 23, and Aug. 4, 1943	Aug. 4, 1943	Jan. 18, 1945	281 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—CANADA

Agreement regarding the southern terminus of the Alaska Highway.	Notes of May 4 and 9, 1942	May 9, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	265 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the Canol Project.	Notes of June 27 and 29, 1942	June 29, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	269 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the Canol Project Pipeline.	Notes of Aug. 14 and 15, 1942	Aug. 15, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	270 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding flight strips along the Alaska Highway.	Notes of Aug. 26 and Sept. 10, 1942	Sept. 10, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	267 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding importation privileges for government officials and employees.	Notes of July 21, Oct. 29, and Nov. 9, 1942	Nov. 9, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	271 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the Haines-Champagne section of the Alaska Highway.	Notes of Nov. 28 and Dec. 7, 1942	Dec. 7, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	268 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding fur seals.	Notes of Dec. 8 and 19, 1942	June 1, 1942	Jan. 18, 1945	301 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the Canol Project Exploratory Wells.	Notes of Dec. 28, 1942, and Jan. 13, 1943	Jan. 13, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	266 U.S.A.

UNITED STATES—CANADA (Cont.)

Agreement regarding the post-war disposition of defense installations and facilities.	Notes of Jan. 27, 1943	Jan. 27, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	272 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the lease of the White Pass and Yukon Railway.	Notes of Feb. 22 and 23, 1943	Feb. 23, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	273 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding Canol Project areas.	Notes of Jan. 18, Feb. 17, and March 13, 1943	Mar. 13, 1943	Oct. 2, 1944	274 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding jurisdiction over prizes, and proclamation.	Notes of May 24 and Aug. 13, 1943	Sept. 27, 1943	Jan. 18, 1945	280 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding radio broadcasting stations.	Notes of Nov. 5 and 25, 1943 and Jan. 17, 1944	Jan. 17, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	286 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the Upper Columbia River Basin.	Feb. 25 and March 3, 1944	Mar. 3, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	285 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the revision of Canol Projects.	Notes of June 7, 1944	June 7, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	302 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding payment for certain defense installations.	Notes of June 23 and 27, 1944	June 27, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	291 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding the temporary raising of the level of Lake St. Francis during low-water periods, continuing in effect the agreement of Nov. 10, 1941.	Notes of Aug. 31 and Sept. 7, 1944	Sept. 7, 1944	April 16, 1945	310 U.S.A.

UNITED STATES—CHINA

Military service agreement.	Notes of Nov. 6, 1943 and May 11 and June 13, 1944	June 13, 1944	April 16, 1945	312 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—DENMARK

Air transport services agreement.	Dec. 16, 1944	(provisionally) Jan. 1, 1945	April 14, 1945	315 U.S.A.
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BILATERAL AGREEMENTS

UNITED STATES—GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Agreement regarding jurisdiction over prizes, and proclamation.	Notes of Oct. 1 and Nov. 3, 1942	Jan. 30, 1943	Jan. 18, 1945	279 U.S.A.
Agreement regarding copyright extension.	Notes of March 10, 1944	Mar. 10, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	287 U.S.A.

UNITED STATES—INDIA

Agreement regarding jurisdiction over criminal offenses committed by armed forces, and related papers.	Notes of Sept. 29 and Oct. 10, 1942	Oct. 26, 1942	Jan. 18, 1945	278 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—IRAN

Reciprocal trade agreement and supplementary exchange of notes.	April 8, 1943	May 29, 1944	June 28, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	296 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—IRAQ

Agreement regarding the exchange of official publications.	Notes of Feb. 16, 1944	Feb. 16, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	289 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—LEBANON

Agreement regarding the rights of American Nationals.	Sept. 7 and 8, 1944	Sept. 8, 1944	April 16, 1945	318 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—LIBERIA

Agreement regarding the construction of a port and port works, and an exchange of notes.	Dec. 31, 1943	Dec. 31, 1943	Jan. 18, 1945	297 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—SWEDEN

Air transport services agreement.	Dec. 16, 1944	Jan. 1, 1945	April 16, 1945	316 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—SYRIA

Agreement regarding the rights of American nationals.	Notes of Sept. 7 and 8, 1944	Sept. 8, 1944	April 14, 1945	317 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—TURKEY

Reciprocal trade agreement, in accordance with Article 1 of the agreement of April 1, 1939.	Notes of April 14 and 22, 1944	April 22, 1944	Jan. 18, 1945	292 U.S.A. *
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MULTILATERAL AGREEMENTS

UNITED STATES—OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS

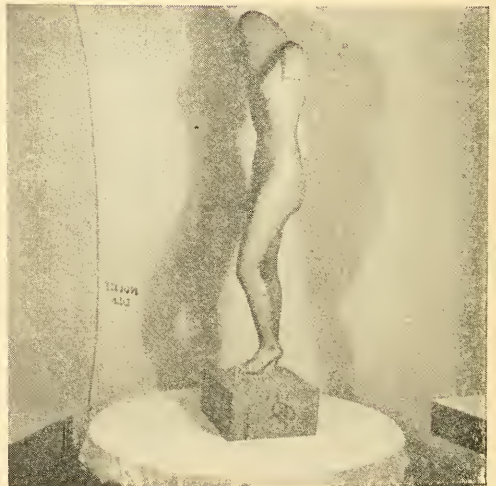
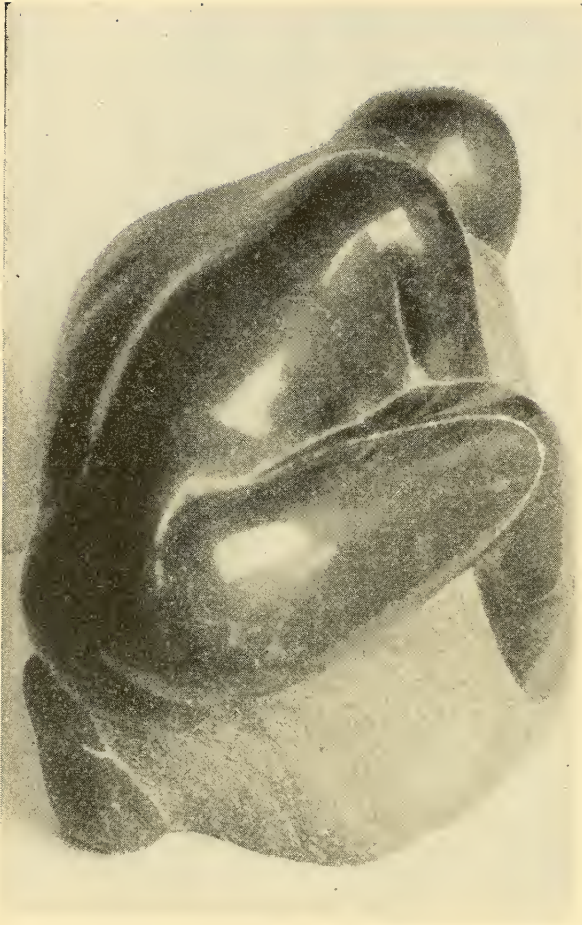
Convention regarding the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences.	Jan. 15, 1944	Nov. 30, 1944	April 20, 1945	320 U.S.A.
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UNITED STATES—ARGENTINA, AUSTRALIA, CANADA, AND UNITED KINGDOM

Memorandum relating to wheat.	April 22, 1942	June 27, 1942	Oct. 2, 1944	277 U.S.A.
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Sculptures by Amador Lira

The National Museum at Washington showed in October twelve works by Genaro Amador Lira, the Nicaraguan sculptor who organized and directs his country's School of Fine Arts. Both styles and media (chiefly different kinds of wood and stone) are diversified. The artist thus describes the three sculptures here illustrated: Above: "Since the beginning of time man has tried to wrench from the earth its secrets." (Diorite.) Below, left: "The swift vision of country people who, descending the mountain to celebrate the fiesta of the patron saint, hurry down the road in a cloud of dust." (Mahogany.) Below, right: "This is how the artist sees humanity: beyond and above the fundamental support of the so-called exact sciences everything relating to the spirit is enveloped in dim and labored uncertainty." (Oak)



Women of the Americas

Women delegates to inter-American conferences

It will be recalled that Srta. Minerva Bernardino, the Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, was the only woman delegate to the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace at Mexico City early this year, and that she also represented her government at the United Nations Conference at San Francisco. To the latter conference Brazil, the United States, and Uruguay also sent women delegates, as mentioned in the BULLETIN for July 1945.

In connection with the interest created by the notable part played by these women delegates and by the other women who were members of various delegations as counselors and advisers, it may be timely to recall that the first inter-American conference of a political character to which women delegates were accredited was the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo in 1933. Paraguay, the United States, and Uruguay each sent a woman delegate with plenipotentiary powers. Brazil named two women delegates and the United States one woman delegate to the Inter-American Conference on the

Maintenance of Peace at Buenos Aires in 1936, and each of these countries included a woman on its delegation to the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima in 1938.

As early as 1919 women attended one of the technical inter-American conferences (the Second Pan American Child Congress) as official delegates. They were sent by Argentina, Cuba, and the United States. It may be that among the numerous special conferences that have taken place in the Americas there is a still earlier instance of women delegates.

Addresses on Latin American women

Miss Mary Cannon, the United States member of the Inter-American Commission of Women, recently addressed seven colleges in Texas on the economic progress of Latin American women. Her lectures were received with great interest, since Miss Cannon has visited all of the Latin American countries that are important industrially and is able to give many little-known facts on industrial conditions and social security, which in several instances surpasses the protection afforded by United States laws.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin Ameri-

can countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

This list will be concluded as of V-J Day, September 2, 1945.

PART XLIV

ARGENTINA

237a. April 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,527, fixing the basic price for yellow and red corn of the 1944-45 crop, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

237b. April 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,528, authorizing the Agricultural Production Regulation Board, for the duration of the state of war and as long as it is necessary to maintain transitional measures from wartime to peacetime economy, to acquire the domestic crops of wheat, flax, and corn; providing that it shall sell directly the wheat, flax, and corn to be exported in fulfillment of the commercial treaties signed by Argentina; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

237c. April 30, 1945. Vice-Presidential Resolution No. 18, creating the Subcommittee of Private Organizations Collaborating with the National Postwar Council to serve in an informative capacity. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 16, 1945.)

240a. May 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,007, authorizing, on the occasion of the approaching end of hostilities in Europe, the displaying of the flags of the friendly members of the United Nations together with the Argentine flag. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

241a. May 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9,926, establishing that the prohibition on exportation of linseed fixed by Presidential Decree No. 32,537 of November 30, 1944 (see Argentina 200a, BULLETIN, September 1945), does not apply to lots already sold and awaiting shipment at the

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR ⁸ , ¹² STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	² Bulgaria ⁸ Rumania ⁴ Hungary	
Argentina.....	⁵ 1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	⁸ 4-7-43	⁸ 4-7-43	⁸ 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(¹)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	⁸ G-2-12-45	⁸ 2-12-45 ¹⁴ 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	⁹ 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (¹⁰)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	¹¹ 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	¹² G-2-11-45	¹² 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(¹³)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	⁸ 2-14-45	⁸ 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

time of promulgation of that decree, nor to small quantities for pharmaceutical use. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 14, 1945.)

241*b*. May 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,135, repealing the decrees which granted juridical personality to three specified companies proved to be operating on enemy funds; and providing that the Administrative Council take possession of the properties of these firms. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 17, 1945.)

241*c*. May 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,191, inviting the municipal governments of the country to decorate the cities with flags for three days following the official announcement of the end of the war in Europe, and calling for thanksgiving services in all the cathedrals of the nation. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

248. May 19, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 10,961, fixing sales prices for denaturants. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

249. May 24, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 11,466, repealing Presidential Decree No. 32,537 of November 30, 1944 (see Argentina 200*a*, BULLETIN, September 1945), which prohibited the exportation of linseed; making the exportation of linseed subject to prior permit; and providing that permits will be granted by the Department of Industry and Commerce in accordance with the provisions of the treaty signed with the Government of the United States on May 9, 1945 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 211, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*Boletín Oficial*, June 6, 1945.)

250. May 24, 1945. Vice-Presidential Resolution No. 24, setting forth, for the purposes of Presidential Resolution No. 2,505 of February 2, 1945 (see Argentina 215, BULLETIN, July 1945) wage scales for rural workers, considered as favorably reported upon by the National Postwar Council, and providing that in the interests of preventing inflation no general raises will be allowed except in specified cases. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 6, 1945.)

251. May 29, 1945. Resolution No. 193, Ministry of the Treasury, authorizing the Central Bank of Argentina to waive foreign exchange requirements in granting export permits for shipments to help prisoners of war or civilian populations in European countries, provided the donations are made from funds collected entirely in Argentina and the request is presented by the Red Cross or a duly accredited foreign representative. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 16, 1945.)

252. June 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 12,223, declaring four Y.P.F. installations to be "war zones"; designating as military governors of these zones the commanding officers of troops guarding the regions; putting the civilians employed in these zones under military jurisdiction; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 11, 1945.)

253. June 2, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 11,996, repealing, in view of improved conditions, Presidential Decree No. 20,052 of July 26, 1944 (see Argentina 150, BULLETIN, January 1945), which placed domestic commerce in copper and its alloys under control of the National Rationing Council. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 11, 1945.)

254. June 13, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 12,963, providing that, as an extraordinary measure, benefits be granted to unemployed workers recently laid off by certain meat-packing plants (see Argentina 236, BULLETIN, September 1945), the benefits to be paid for no more than three months, beginning April 24, 1945, for an amount equal to the wages the workers were receiving in the plants. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 18, 1945.)

COLOMBIA

162*a*. May 4, 1945. Resolution No. 292, National Price Control Office, fixing prices for certain kinds of hardware. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

164. May 30, 1945. Resolution No. 362, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 372 of May 31, 1944 (see Colombia 124, BULLETIN, November 1944) to approve new maximum retail prices for certain drugs. (*Diario Oficial*, June 22, 1945.)

165. June 1, 1945. Resolution No. 367, National Price Control Office, amending Resolution No. 292 of May 4, 1945 (see 162*a* above) to exclude horse-shoe nails and fence staples from its provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

166. June 5, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1371, declaring the Convention on the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 123, BULLETIN, February 1944 and Colombia 151, BULLETIN, April and August 1945) to be effective in Colombia from March 16, 1945. (*Diario Oficial*, June 11, 1945.)

167. June 27, 1945. Resolution No. 435, National Price Control Office, fixing maximum whole-

sale and retail prices for a specified brand of cement, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, July 12, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

193. June 27, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 81, clarifying Legislative Decree No. 26 of November 17, 1944 (see Costa Rica 178, *BULLETIN*, May 1945), which provided for indemnification of Costa Rican citizens who have been prisoners of war or have been confined in concentration camps. (*La Gaceta*, July 26, 1945.)

194. July 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9, approving the charter of the United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212, *BULLETIN*, August 1945) and submitting it to the Congress for ratification. (*La Gaceta*, July 26, 1945.)

CUBA

154i. May 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1315, approving the regulations of the National Development Commission, established in accordance with Law No. 31 of November 22, 1941, which authorized the President of the Republic to negotiate a loan with the Export-Import Bank of Washington to the sum of \$25,000,000. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 11, 1942, p. 8282.)

545i. March 11, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 683, prescribing regulations governing the National Control Commission established by Presidential Decree No. 1894 of June 25, 1942, and complementary legislation (see Cuba 180, *BULLETIN*, October 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 23, 1944, p. 4615.)

640a. August 10, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 2418, creating a technical commission to proceed to Washington to negotiate the sale of Cuban sugar. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 16, 1944, p. 13187.)

724a. February 8, 1945. Circular No. 34, Minister of the Treasury, prescribing regulations regarding inspection of foreign vessels arriving at and leaving Cuban ports, in order to detect stowaways, and similar inspection of Cuban vessels on arrival. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1945, p. 6245.)

734a. February 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 493, transferring the Office of Correspondence, Radio and Telecommunications Control and Censorship (see Cuba 387, *BULLETIN*, August 1943) from the Ministry of National Defense to the

Office of the Prime Minister, prescribing regulations concerning the Office's duties and functions, and amending specified articles of Decree No. 683 of March 11, 1944 (see 545i above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1945, p. 3521.)

734b. February 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 807, authorizing the Secretary of State to accept applications for citizenship from nationals or subjects of countries which were formerly allied with enemy nations but which have changed their belligerent status and become associated with the United Nations, provided the applicants were living in Cuba prior to September 1, 1939; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 27, 1945, p. 6145.)

734c. February 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 539, partially suspending the sugar production tax imposed by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941, and Resolution-Law No. 15 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 33 and 63, *BULLETIN*, April and May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 27, 1945, p. 4098.)

739a. February 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 586, granting certain tax exemptions to a specified firm engaged in business with agencies of the United States Government. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 7, 1945, p. 4707.)

739b. February 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 684, requiring compliance with the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3788 of October 24, 1944, regarding the establishment of emergency food markets and the reduction of market rents, and fixing penalties for infractions (see Cuba 666b, *BULLETIN*, March 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1945, p. 5028.)

739c. March 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 625, appointing a committee of technical price and supply experts to advise the chairman of the Cuban Technical Commission in Washington to negotiate the sale of Cuban sugar (see 640a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1945, p. 4609.)

739d. March 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 659, regulating the collection and administration of the production tax levied on molasses by Resolution-Law No. 14 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 62, *BULLETIN*, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 9, 1945, p. 4899.)

741a. March 3, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 693, amending specified articles of the regulations of the National Development Commission, with special regard to the functions and responsibilities

of the Commission's supervising accountant (see 154, above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 10, 1945, p. 4994.)

742a. March 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 695, amending Decree No. 1864 of July 19, 1940 by lengthening, because of transportation and other difficulties resulting from the war, the period for filing claims for reimbursement of the consumers' tax on sugar and its products levied on industries using such products as raw material for export manufactures. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 9, 1945, p. 4909.)

750a. March 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 741, increasing the partial suspension of the sugar tax granted by Decree No. 539 of February 21, 1945 (see 734c above), and making further amendments. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1945, p. 5731.)

751a. March 20, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 905, including local and long distance telephone and radiotelephone communications under the public utilities, transportation, and communications rate freezing provisions of Presidential Decree No. 2014 of July 5, 1943 (see Cuba 437, BULLETIN, October 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 7, 1945, p. 6954.)

755a. March 31, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 904, extending through the 1945 sugar season the emergency reduced freight rates on sugar acquired by the Commodity Credit Corporation or other agency of the United States Government, authorized for previous seasons by Presidential Decrees Nos. 1252 of April 21, 1943, 349 of February 19, 1944, and 410 of February 8, 1945 (see Cuba 385, 532, and 726, BULLETIN, July 1943, June 1944, and May 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 6, 1945, p. 6860.)

757e. (Correction) April 21, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 27, 1945, p. 8385.)

757j. May 2, 1945. Resolution No. 339, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 172 of December 21, 1943, with reference to declarations of stocks of foodstuffs (see Cuba 515, BULLETIN, April 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 12, 1945, p. 9410.)

757k. May 3, 1945. Resolution No. 340, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing the chairman of the National Purchasing and Supply Commission for Tallow for the soap industry to deny permission for withdrawal from customs of industrial tallow and edible fats and oils not im-

ported in accordance with official regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 12, 1945, p. 9410.)

757l. May 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1416, repealing certain portions of Decree No. 960 of April 4, 1945, which increased the producers' price of milk used in the manufacture of condensed and evaporated milk (see Cuba 756, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 22, 1945, p. 9957.)

757m. May 4, 1945. Decree, Minister of the Treasury, outlining certain requirements for packaging the tax-exempt salt sold to United States armed forces under the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 1738 of June 9, 1943 (see Cuba 414, BULLETIN, September 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 25, 1945, p. 10244.)

757n. May 4, 1945. Resolution No. 341, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing prices for nationally produced butter in 1/6 pound blocks. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 12, 1945, p. 9411.)

757o. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1304, requiring the holding of sugar for local consumption, so that the Minister of Commerce may fix necessary standards for its distribution, for purposes of maintaining a normal supply and avoiding speculation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

757p. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1335, fixing wholesale and retail prices for nationally produced potatoes in Habana and other specified areas, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1945, p. 9926.)

757q. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1337, suspending the collection of the export tax on money or its equivalent (established by the law of July 12, 1925) with respect to certain exports made by the French Democratic Committee to the French Red Cross. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 18, 1945, p. 9828.)

757r. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1338, suspending the collection in certain cases of the amusement tax levied by Law No. 7 of April 5, 1943 (see Cuba 374a, BULLETIN, September 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1945, p. 9638.)

757s. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1339, amending Decree No. 89 of January 12, 1945 (see Cuba 703, BULLETIN, April 1945), to extend the duty exemption authorized thereby to an additional amount of imported wheat flour. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 18, 1945, p. 9828.)

7571. May 9, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1343, authorizing the Minister of Commerce to organize in the Import and Export Agency an Alcohol Department to handle the affairs of the abolished Alcohol Regulatory Agency (see Cuba 664, BULLETIN, January 1945), and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 14, 1945, p. 9442.)

759. May 11, 1945. Resolution No. 342, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 327 of March 28, 1945, referring to declarations of stocks of unused film (see Cuba 754, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 15, 1945, p. 9543.)

760. May 11, 1945. Resolution No. 343, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a quota of tires and tubes to meet pending eligible requests. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1945, p. 9655; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, June 5, 1945, p. 10990.)

761. May 11, 1945. Resolution No. 344, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, outlining procedures for the granting of quotas of tallow, inedible fats, resins, caustic soda, and other materials needed by the soap industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1945, p. 9655.)

762. May 11, 1945. Resolution No. 345, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing imported tire and tube distribution quotas for passenger vehicles and motorcycles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1945, p. 9656.)

763. May 11, 1945. Resolution No. 346, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, suspending the application of specified articles of Resolution No. 290 of January 18, 1945, regarding beef cattle, and temporarily suspending the Beef Cattle Purchase and Distribution Commission (see Cuba 706 and 753, BULLETIN, April and August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1945, p. 9657.)

764. May 12, 1945. Resolution No. 91, Minister of Commerce, subjecting to consumption permit the supplies of raw or refined sugar delivered to wholesalers, limiting the monthly supply to the amount obtained in the corresponding month of 1944, and applying similar regulations to the sugar that may be obtained by retailers, cafés, hotels, asylums, hospitals, schools, and other like establishments. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, May 30, 1945, p. 10585.)

765. May 15, 1945. Resolution No. 347, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing maximum prices for certain fresh fruits in the municipal mar-

kets of Habana and other specified places. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 23, 1945, p. 10052.)

766. May 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1425, amending Art. 17 of Presidential Decree No. 4 of January 2, 1945 (see Cuba 694a, BULLETIN, June 1945), in reference to funds allocated to the Compensation Fund used to equalize returns to sugar producers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 29, 1945, p. 10478.)

767. May 16, 1945. Resolution No. 348, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a quota of tires and tubes for essential agricultural, industrial, and official services, and for filling pending eligible requests. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 31, 1945, p. 10679.)

768. May 25, 1945. Resolution No. 104, Minister of Commerce, prescribing further rules and regulations concerning supplies of sugar for wholesalers, retailers, hotels, cafés, hospitals, and similar establishments, in accordance with Resolution No. 91 of May 12, 1945 (see 764 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 30, 1945, p. 10585.)

769. May 25, 1945. Resolution No. 349, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, clarifying the application of Resolution No. 347 of May 15, 1945 (see 765 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 31, 1945, p. 10679.)

770. May 29, 1945. Resolution No. 350, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for interurban and interprovincial public transportation services. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 13, 1945, p. 11594.)

771. May 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1505, authorizing the establishment of a temporary local sugar consumption control office in the Ministry of Commerce and providing funds for its maintenance (see 764 and 768 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 7, 1945, p. 11179.)

772. May 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1510, removing wartime economic and social control, police surveillance, and immigration and citizenship restrictions with reference to nationals of specified European countries now liberated from enemy occupation or control. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 6, 1945, p. 11073.)

773. May 31, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1493, fixing live and dressed beef prices throughout the Republic and making other provisions regarding meat supply and distribution. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 2, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 1.)

774. May 31, 1945. Resolution No. 351, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, extending to December 31, 1945, the official price for grade B milk in Habana and other specified places fixed by Resolution No. 103 of January 16, 1945 (see Cuba 704, BULLETIN, April 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 13, 1945, p. 11594.)

775. June 1, 1945. Resolution No. 111, Minister of Commerce, clarifying Resolution No. 91 of May 12, 1945 with reference to sugar consumption permits (see 764 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 6, 1945, p. 11087.)

776. June 2, 1945. Resolution No. 352, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for federal-owned vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 13, 1945, p. 11595.)

777. June 2, 1945. Resolution No. 353, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, granting a request for tires and tubes made by a specified public transportation enterprise. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1945, p. 11799.)

778. June 5, 1945. Resolution No. 354, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for the Army. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1945, p. 11799.)

779. June 5, 1945. Resolution No. 355, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, clarifying Resolution No. 351 of May 31, 1945 (see 774 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1945, p. 11800.)

780. June 5, 1945. Resolution No. 356, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for milk delivery trucks. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 19, 1945, p. 12008.)

781. June 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1634, approving the contract signed April 26, 1945, between the Defense Supplies Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute for the purchase by the former of blackstrap molasses produced from the 1945 Cuban sugar crop (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 194a below). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 1.)

782. June 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1636, approving the contract signed April 26, 1945, between the Commodity Credit Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute for the purchase by the former of sugar produced in Cuba during the 1945 crop season (see Bilateral and

Multilateral Measures 194b below). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 11.)

783. June 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1637, approving the contract signed April 26, 1945, between the Defense Supplies Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute, for the purchase by the former of alcohol produced in Cuba from surplus and domestic supplies of blackstrap molasses during the 1945 sugar season (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 194c below). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 22.)

784. June 8, 1945. Resolution No. 357, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, extending to December 31, 1945, the prices for cement fixed by Resolution No. 227 of May 19, 1944 (see Cuba 587a, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 20, 1945, p. 12102.)

785. June 8, 1945. Resolution No. 358, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for owners of woodlots who supply wood for charcoal production. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 20, 1945, p. 12102.)

786. June 12, 1945. Resolution No. 359, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, extending the provisions of Resolution No. 330 of April 9, 1945 (see Cuba 756d, BULLETIN, September 1945) to motorized equipment used in highway construction and maintenance; i.e., declaring them to be articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 12, 1945, p. 12103.)

787. June 13, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1668, amending certain prices fixed for dressed beef by Presidential Decree No. 1493 of May 31, 1945 (see 773 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1945, p. 11911.)

788. June 13, 1945. Resolution No. 360, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring laundry soap manufacturers to make a single type of such soap and fixing the formula for its manufacture. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 13, 1945, p. 11886.)

789. June 13, 1945. Resolution No. 361, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing the period June 12-September 15, 1945, for the acceptance of requests for quotas of fertilizer for tobacco. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 21, 1945, p. 12203.)

790. June 13, 1945. Resolution No. 362, suspending the granting of tire and tube purchase

permits in Habana and other specified places. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 21, 1945, p. 12204.)

791. June 13, 1945. Resolution No. 363, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing procedures for the importation for military use of United Nations surplus vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 22, 1945, p. 12297.)

792. June 22, 1945. Resolution No. 364, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, suspending during July and August 1945 quotas of fuel for school buses. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 28, 1945, p. 12709.)

793. June 22, 1945. Resolution No. 365, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, granting a quota of tires and tubes for vehicles used in the cultivation and transportation of coffee. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 2, 1945, p. 12944.)

794. June 23, 1945. Resolution No. 366, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for meeting the requirements of the Cuban Electric Power Company. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 2, 1945, p. 12944; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, July 9, 1945, p. 13441.)

795. June 23, 1945. Resolution No. 367, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a quota of tires and tubes for transportation of alcohol and lighting fuel. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 3, 1945, p. 13037.)

796. June 25, 1945. Resolution No. 368, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing June and July quotas of tires and tubes for certain bus companies. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 5, 1945, p. 13233.)

797. June 26, 1945. Resolution No. 369, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing June and July tire and tube quotas for public freight transport enterprises throughout the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 6, 1945, p. 13329.)

798. July 2, 1945. Resolution No. 370, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, amending Resolution No. 358 of June 8, 1945, in reference to tires and tubes for producers of wood for charcoal manufacture (see 785 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1945, p. 13636.)

799. July 6, 1945. Resolution No. 371, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, granting an emergency quota of tires and tubes for army use. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 3, 1945, p. 13832.)

800. July 7, 1945. Resolution No. 372, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, extending to August 11, 1945, quotas of gas oil for the Depart-

ment of Industries, cancellation of which was ordered by Resolution No. 328 of April 4, 1945 (see Cuba 756a, BULLETIN, September 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1945, p. 13832.)

801. July 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1895, declaring present stocks of export quota coffee to be necessary for domestic consumption, prohibiting the exportation of such stocks until new export quotas can be figured, fixing prices for selling such coffee for domestic use, and making other pertinent rules and regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 16, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 1.)

802. July 10, 1945. Resolution No. 373, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing an emergency quota of tires and tubes for transportation services in the Isle of Pines. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 20, 1945, p. 14338.)

803. July 12, 1945. Resolution No. 374, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prohibiting the use of imported or domestic condensed or evaporated milk by industrialists in their manufactured products and by cafés, hotels, and similar establishments. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 20, 1945, p. 14339.)

804. July 17, 1945. Resolution No. 375, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring bath and toilet soap manufacturers and importers to print on soap wrappers the official prices established by Resolution No. 129 of July 19, 1943 and Presidential Decree No. 2725 of August 26, 1944 (see Cuba 441 and 645, BULLETIN, October 1943 and November 1944); and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 24, 1945, Edición Extraordinaria, p. 10.)

805. July 26, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2048, fixing producer, factory, wholesale, and retail prices for peanuts and peanut oil, and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 30, 1945, p. 14980.)

806. July 27, 1945. Resolution No. 12, Cuban Coffee Stabilization Institute, making further provisions concerning the control and regulation of export quota coffee stocks, in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 1895 of July 10, 1945 (see 801 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 30, 1945, p. 14979.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

170. June 18, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2755, amending Decree No. 2632 of April 26, 1945 (see Dominican Republic 165, BULLETIN, August 1945), with respect to the exportation of

precious woods, permitting them to be exported only in manufactured form. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 23, 1945.)

171. June 19, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2760, supplementing the rent control provisions of Decree No. 2263 of November 7, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 150, BULLETIN, March 1945), with respect to the establishment of control over rents of new or reconstructed dwellings and the rents to be paid by new tenants. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

172. June 23, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2768, transferring from the Department of the Treasury and Commerce to the Department of Labor and National Economy the following functions: issuance of export permits for sugar, hides, leather products, and matches; issuance of import permits for fats, oils, and rice; and control over the issuance of bank drafts in accordance with Law No. 51 of July 28, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 42c, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 25, 1945.)

173. June 23, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2771, requiring airports to supply the military and police authorities with lists of all passengers arriving from abroad and in transit, and requiring hotels and lodging houses to furnish the same authorities with daily lists of their lodgers who have arrived from abroad; adopted to control the movement of persons who may be connected with the overthrown Nazi regime. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 25, 1945.)

174. June 23, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2772, replacing Decree No. 2760 of June 19, 1945, regarding rent control (see 171 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 25, 1945.)

175. July 7, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2810, abolishing the Pharmaceutical Products Control Commission and Subcommission established by Decrees Nos. 82 of June 23, 1942 and 1200 of June 14, 1943 (see Dominican Republic 41 and 90, BULLETIN, November 1942 and August 1943), but continuing in effect to December 31, 1945, the prices fixed by those agencies. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1945.)

ECUADOR

91c. October 6, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 279, regulating the exportation of cinchona and its products in order to prevent domestic scarcities. (*Registro Oficial*, December 1, 1944.)

94a. December 15, 1944. Resolution No. 126,

Minister of Economy, authorizing the Rubber Development Corporation to import and distribute machetes to rubber workers without complying with the provisions of Resolution No. 108 of November 17, 1944 (see Ecuador 92d, BULLETIN, June 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, April 28, 1945.)

(Correction) Items 97a and 97b, BULLETIN, September 1945, should have been numbered 96a and 97a, respectively.

99a. February 21, 1945. Legislative decree providing for indemnification of land owners of the region in the Santa Elena Peninsula occupied by United States forces (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 43a, BULLETIN, February 1943). (*Registro Oficial*, March 21, 1945.)

105a. April 7, 1945. Resolution No. 44, Minister of Economy, ordering Public Assistance Boards of the nation to surrender their stocks of Bayer and Schering pharmaceutical products to the Blocked Property Control Office; authorizing the latter agency to sell the products at wholesale and retail to the general public; and continuing in effect all sections of Resolution No. 620 of November 23, 1943 not contrary to the present resolution (see Ecuador 68, BULLETIN, May 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, June 5, 1945.)

105b. April 10, 1945. Resolution No. 46, Minister of Economy, determining procedures for the application of penalties fixed by the Legislative Resolution of October 19, 1944, with reference to sugar hoarding (see Ecuador 92b, BULLETIN, April 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, May 2, 1945.)

106a. April 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 595-d, repealing the 2.5 per cent ad valorem tax on wheat fixed by Presidential Decree No. 1204 of August 9, 1943 (see Ecuador 58, BULLETIN, December 1943, January and April 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, May 30, 1945.)

108. April 28, 1945. Resolution No. 115, Minister of the Treasury, issuing regulations to expedite and facilitate the importation of merchandise in packages weighing up to 100 kilograms, in order to relieve warehouse congestion. (*Registro Oficial*, June 1, 1945.)

109. May 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 692, prescribing regulations pertaining to rice mills, prices for rice, and deliveries to the National Distributing Agency; making other pertinent provisions in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 759 of August 9, 1944 and the Legislative Decree of December 4, 1944; and continuing in effect

Presidential Decree No. 510-e of April 4, 1945 (see Ecuador 86, 94, and 105, BULLETIN, January, June, and September 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, May 11, 1945.)

110. May 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 697, declaring May 9, 1945, to be a national holiday in celebration of the Allied Victory in Europe. (*Registro Oficial*, May 23, 1945.)

111. June 1, 1945. Resolution No. 73, Minister of Economy, repealing Resolution No. 20 of February 28, 1945, which prohibited the exportation of oleaginous seeds (see Ecuador 100, BULLETIN, September 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

112. June 8, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 881, amending the tariff law to lower the duty on automobiles and other motor vehicles, in order to take them out of the luxury class, in view of their importance to national economic development. (*Registro Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

113. June 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 913, repealing Art. 6 of Decree No. 179 of June 22, 1944, regarding rice distribution, in order to eliminate unnecessary administrative procedures (see Ecuador 74d, BULLETIN, December 1944). (*Registro Oficial*, June 23, 1945.)

114. June 26, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1015, making the production and sale of domestic sugar and the importation of sugar free of all restrictions but strictly prohibiting any exportation until national production surpasses home requirements; exempting imported sugar from all duties and taxes until December 31, 1946; making other provisions regarding profits of and capital investments in sugar mills; and repealing all contrary legislation. (*Registro Oficial*, June 26, 1945.)

115. June 29, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1046, allowing free exportation of cinchona products subject to the conditions established by Decree No. 279 of October 6, 1944 (see 91c above). (*Registro Oficial*, July 9, 1945.)

116. July 13, 1945. Decree, Permanent Legislative Committee, regulating procedures with reference to blocked properties in accordance with the legislative decree of March 2, 1945 (see Ecuador 102, BULLETIN, September 1945). (*Registro Oficial*, July 14, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

114. June 30, 1945. Decree No. 122, National Constituent Assembly, extending until November

30, 1945, the effectiveness of Legislative Decree No. 3 of February 21, 1945 (see El Salvador 103, BULLETIN, July 1945), which exempted rice, cacao beans, and sole leather from import duties. (*Diario Oficial*, July 10, 1945.)

HAITI

112. July 11, 1945. Executive Order No. 540, calling the National Assembly into special session on July 19, 1945, to consider ratification of the United Nations Charter (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*Le Moniteur*, July 12, 1945.)

MEXICO

220a. December 12, 1943. Executive Order amending the order of December 8, 1941 (see Mexico 1a, BULLETIN, May 1942) by adding Portuguese and French to the two languages (Spanish and English) that may be used in telegrams to the American nations, European possessions in the American Continent, North Africa, Switzerland, and other specified places. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, August 23, 1945.)

267i. October 5, 1944. Decree making further provisions regarding the general dispositions relative to the suspension of individual guarantees (see Mexico 43, BULLETIN, September 1942). (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, August 14, 1945.)

301c. June 5, 1945. Decree amending the order of the Department of National Economy of May 24, 1943, regarding the acquisition of tires and tubes, and increasing the prices fixed for tires and tubes by the decree of September 17, 1943 (see Mexico 162 and 197, BULLETIN, September and December 1943). Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 20, 1945.)

302b. June 20, 1945. Decree requiring special authorization by the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit for offering Mexican stocks, bonds, mortgage bonds, or other securities in foreign stock exchanges and markets. Effective June 30, 1945. (*Diario Oficial*, June 29, 1945; corrections in *Diario Oficial*, August 15, 1945.)

306a. July 4, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing the order of September 23, 1942 (see Mexico 88, BULLETIN, December 1942) with respect to a specified property. (*Diario Oficial*, August 4, 1945.)

307a. July 17, 1945. Resolution, Minister of

Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, August 13, 1945.)

307b. July 17, 1945. Resolution, Minister of Agriculture, fixing the sugar cane supply zone for a specified mill in accordance with the decree of September 22, 1943 (see Mexico 199, BULLETIN, December 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, August 13, 1945.)

309. July 18, 1945. Executive Order amending the order of December 12, 1943 (see 220a above), relative to the languages that may be used in messages to the American nations. (*Diario Oficial*, August 23, 1945.)

310. July 25, 1945. Decree repealing the decree of October 27, 1942, which created the Committee for the Coordination of Imports (see Mexico 99c, BULLETIN, March 1943), and transferring its functions, as long as the emergency exists, to the Departments of Foreign Affairs and National Economy. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 7, 1945.)

311. August 8, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing the order of February 9, 1944 (see Mexico 232a, BULLETIN, June 1944) with respect to a specified individual. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1945.)

312. August 8, 1945. Order, Interdepartmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, repealing the order of September 8, 1942 (see Mexico 82c, BULLETIN, March 1943) with respect to a specified individual. (*Diario Oficial*, September 3, 1945.)

313. August 13, 1945. Decree extending for a thirty-day period beginning with the date of the cessation of hostilities between the United Nations and Japan the suspension of certain individual guarantees throughout the Republic. (*Diario Oficial*, August 14, 1945.)

314. August 14, 1945. Decree declaring August 15, 1945, a day of national celebration of the United Nations Victory. (*Diario Oficial*, August 15, 1945.)

315. August 20, 1945. Decree repealing the decrees of April 13, 1943, May 17, 1943, and June 6, 1944 (see Mexico 150, 157a, and 247a, BULLETIN, July and September 1943 and October 1944), which restricted the transit of automobiles.

Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 25, 1945.)

316. August 28, 1945. Order, Secretary of the Treasury, fixing new increased wholesale and retail prices for sugar and repealing the order of February 21, 1945 (see Mexico 289, BULLETIN, June 1945), as a means to stimulate national sugar production. (*Diario Oficial*, September 1, 1945.)

317. August 28, 1945. Decree fixing the distribution of the 10-centavo per kilogram increase for sugar fixed by the Treasury Department order of August 28, 1945 (see 316 above). (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1945.)

318. August 28, 1945. Decree amending the law that levied an additional tax on sugar by increasing the tax 2 centavos per kilogram, half of which will be applied to subsidies for low-production sugar mills and for the general development of the sugar industry, the other half being allocated according to the original law. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1945.)

NICARAGUA

54a. September 2, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 310, amplifying Legislative Decree No. 276 of August 28, 1943 (see Nicaragua 50, BULLETIN, March 1944) in regard to the disposition of property of citizens of enemy nations and of persons named in the Proclaimed List. (Mentioned in *La Gaceta*, June 6, 1945.)

65a. December 6, 1944. Legislative Decree No. 335, amending Legislative Decree No. 276 of August 28, 1943 (see Nicaragua 50, BULLETIN, March 1944), in regard to the disposition of property of citizens of enemy nations and of persons named in the Proclaimed List, and making other provisions. (*La Gaceta*, December 14, 1944.)

66. May 26, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 345, amplifying Legislative Decree No. 310 of September 2, 1944 (see 54a above) in regard to the disposition of property of citizens of enemy nations and of persons named in the Proclaimed List. (*La Gaceta*, June 6, 1945.)

67. June 27, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 367, declaring a state of economic emergency for one year from date, and making other provisions. (*La Gaceta*, June 28, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

91. May 8, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8584, declaring May 8, 1945, a national holiday in celebra-

tion of the end of the war in Europe. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945.)

92. May 23, 1945. Decree-Law No. 8815, providing for the liquidation of a specified banking concern, in compliance with Decree-Law No. 7190 of February 8, 1945 and Decree-Law No. 7867 of March 23, 1945 (see Paraguay 72a and 79, BULLETIN, August 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 24, 1945.)

93. June 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9153, fixing standards for the sugar industry during the 1945 crop year; prescribing rules and regulations governing sugar distribution and prices; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

94. June 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 9240, fixing the price for carbon disulphide sold to farmers through the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

PERU

150a. May 7, 1945. Supreme Decree No. 768, declaring May 8, Victory Day, and May 10, 1945, national holidays; providing that the flag shall remain up on public buildings May 8, 9, and 10; and making other provisions for appropriate celebration of the United Nations victory in Europe. (*El Peruano*, July 12, 1945.)

URUGUAY

255. March 2, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 748/941, extending to the end of 1945 the increase in the price of gas authorized by the decree of March 10, 1944 (see Uruguay 196, BULLETIN, August 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, March 12, 1945.)

263b. April 16, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 200/945, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for specified types of tin and repealing all contrary legislation. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1945.)

266a. May 4, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1872/945, placing specified Axis business enterprises under government control. (*Diario Oficial*, May 11, 1945.)

266b. May 7, 1945. Legislative decree declaring May 8, 1945, to be a holiday in celebration of the United Nations victory in Europe. (*Diario Oficial*, May 16, 1945.)

269. May 29, 1945. Presidential Resolution No.

614/943, fixing producers' prices for milk. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

270. May 29, 1945. Presidential Resolution No. 1872/945, placing a specified Axis firm under government control. (*Diario Oficial*, June 12, 1945.)

271. June 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1362/944, fixing prices for alcohol-base veterinary products prepared by ANCAP. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1945.)

272. June 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 800/945, fixing a quota of 15,000 head of cattle to be slaughtered for the production of jerked beef during 1945. (*Diario Oficial*, June 18, 1945.)

273. June 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 5029, authorizing the reestablishment of telecommunications with France, Belgium, Norway, and other specified European and African countries. (*Diario Oficial*, June 26, 1945.)

274. June 15, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 325/945, declaring that the wholesalers' prices fixed for refined and crystal sugar by the decrees of November 21, 1944 and March 9, 1945 (see Uruguay 241 and 259, BULLETIN, March and August 1945) shall also apply to such sugar sold by importers. (*Diario Oficial*, June 21, 1945.)

275. July 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 3232/944, adding all kinds of forage to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, July 16, 1945.)

276. July 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1265/943, approving new prices for Diesel oil. (*Diario Oficial*, July 16, 1945.)

277. July 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1872/945, providing that all stocks of wool in the possession of Axis firms placed under official control shall be deposited in the Bank of the Republic and authorizing the Bank to undertake the sale of the wool and to keep the proceeds in blocked accounts at the Bank. (*Diario Oficial*, July 25, 1945.)

278. July 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 4475/944, authorizing the duty-free importation of 10,000 cases of eggs and fixing minimum retail prices therefor in Montevideo. (*Diario Oficial*, July 23, 1945.)

279. July 27, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 241/945, fixing import quotas for Diesel and fuel oils for the second half of 1945. (*Diario Oficial*, August 1, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

212a. May 10, 1945. Resolution No. 34, National Supply Commission, forbidding manufacturers to rebuild, retread, or receive in their factories tires which are not fit for use after being reconditioned, or to do any piece of work as "un-guaranteed"; repealing Resolution No. 30, National Transport Board, July 13, 1944 (see Venezuela 162, BULLETIN, November 1944); and making other provisions regarding tire retreading. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 10, 1945.)

218. June 14, 1945. Congressional declaration of a state of belligerency between Venezuela on the one hand and Germany and Japan on the other, confirming government recognition of such a state of belligerency on February 15, 1945 (see Venezuela 201, BULLETIN, June 1945). Signed by the President on June 28, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1945.)

219. June 14, 1945. Law approving the Declaration by the United Nations signed in Washington by the Government of Venezuela on February 20, 1945 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1 and 178, BULLETIN, April 1942 and May 1945). Signed by the President on June 28, 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1945.)

220. June 27, 1945. Resolution No. 36, National Supply Commission, requiring owners of trucks which regularly carry freight between Caracas and the coast to send all available vehicles to La Guaira, beginning July 2, to bring the freight deposited at the customhouse there to Caracas, transporting this merchandise in accordance with a priority schedule fixed by the Commission; making other provisions to hasten the emptying of warehouses at La Guaira; and repealing Resolution No. 28, National Transport Board, June 29, 1944, and Resolution No. 17, National Supply Commission, November 25, 1944 (see Venezuela 158d and 192, BULLETIN, January and March 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 27, 1945.)

221. June 30, 1945. Resolution No. 19, Economy and Finance Office, Ministry of the Treasury, authorizing the Central Bank to grant permission for the withdrawal, from accounts representing proceeds of sales of certain Axis property, of sums of money intended for the living expenses of German and Japanese nationals residing in Venezuela. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1945.)

222. June 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 178, suspending with regard to Belgium, Czecho-

slovakia, Denmark, France, Norway, and the Netherlands certain restrictions on commercial transactions and property imposed by Executive Decree No. 241 of November 9, 1943 (see Venezuela 126, BULLETIN, April 1944), at a time when those countries were occupied by German troops. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 3, 1945.)

223. July 2, 1945. Resolution No. 20, Economics and Finance Office, Ministry of the Treasury, making final provisions for auctioning the trademarks of a specified Axis-owned firm (see Venezuela 215, BULLETIN, October 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 2, 1945.)

224. July 2, 1945. Resolution No. 37, National Supply Commission, fixing prices for a lot of tires and tubes imported from Brazil in June. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 2, 1945.)

225. July 3, 1945. Resolution No. 38, National Supply Commission, fixing new prices for raw milk in specified regions of the country; repealing Resolution No. 19 of December 22, 1944 (see Venezuela 195, BULLETIN, May 1945); and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 3, 1945.)

226. July 9, 1945. Resolution No. 21, Economics and Finance Office, Ministry of the Treasury, making final provisions for auctioning the trademarks of a specified Axis-owned firm (see Venezuela 214, BULLETIN, October 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 9, 1945.)

227. July 11, 1945. Resolution No. 39, National Supply Commission, regulating prices for potatoes, beans, pressed brown sugar, and certain kinds of cheese in specified localities, and repealing prices for these products fixed by Resolution No. 64 of January 20, 1943 (see Venezuela 87a, BULLETIN, July 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1945; corrected copy, *Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1945.)

228. July 19, 1945. Resolution No. 40, National Supply Commission, repealing Resolution No. 24 of February 5, 1945 (see Venezuela 200a, BULLETIN, July 1945) and making new regulations governing prices, sale, and distribution of sugar in specified localities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 19, 1945.)

229. August 4, 1945. Resolution No. 41, National Supply Commission, amending Resolution No. 22 of January 10, 1945 (see Venezuela 197, BULLETIN, May 1945) in regard to taxi fares. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 4, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

194a. April 26, 1945. Contract between the Defense Supplies Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute, for the purchase by the former of 70,000,000 gallons of blackstrap molasses produced from the 1945 Cuban sugar crop, plus any exportable surplus not required by Cuba for alcohol production. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Cuba, Edición Extraordinaria, June 18, 1945, p. 1.)

194b. April 26, 1945. Contract between the Commodity Credit Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute, for the purchase by the former of the entire 1945 Cuban sugar output, with the exception of 250,000 long tons reserved for domestic use and 150,000 long tons reserved for export to the United Kingdom, Canada, and other countries. The basic minimum price to be paid in 1945 is 3.10 cents (U.S.) per pound; the price in 1943 and 1944 was 2.65 cents (U.S.). (*Gaceta Oficial*, Cuba, Edición Extraordinaria, June 18, 1945, p. 12.)

194c. April 26, 1945. Contract between the Defense Supplies Corporation, an agency of the United States Government, and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute, for the purchase by the former of all the alcohol that can be produced in Cuba from the blackstrap molasses not sold to Defense Supplies Corporation in accordance with the contract of April 26, 1945 (see 194a above); such quantity to include a minimum of 20,500,000 wine gallons of 190° proof alcohol, plus the equivalent of 190° proof alcohol produced for spirituous liquors from Cuba's unexported surplus of blackstrap molasses. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Cuba, Edición Extraordinaria, June 18, 1945, p. 23.)

211. (Correction) May 9, 1945. (Mentioned in *Boletín Oficial*, Argentina, June 6, 1945.)

226. August 8, 1945. Agreement among the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the Provisional Government of the French Republic for the establishment of an international military tribunal for the prosecution and punish-

ment of the major war criminals of the European Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 12, 1945.)

227. August 8, 1945. Charter of the International Military Tribunal (see 226 above). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 12, 1945.)

228. August 14, 1945. Acceptance by Japan of the Potsdam Declaration, which specified the unconditional surrender of Japan (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 217 and 225, BULLETIN, October 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, August 19, 1945.)

229. September 1, 1945. Signing by Japan of the surrender terms on the battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay, and of the acceptance of the instrument by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers for the United States, Republic of China, United Kingdom, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and in the interests of the other United Nations at war with Japan; signed also by representatives of the United States, China, the United Kingdom, U.S.S.R., Australia, Canada, the Provisional Government of the French Republic, the Netherlands, and New Zealand. (The surrender document was signed on September 1, 1945, Eastern War Time; on September 2, 1945, Tokyo Time.) (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 2 and 9, 1945.)

230. September 4, 1945. Deposit by the Dominican Republic's Ambassador with the United States Department of State of the Dominican ratification of the Charter of the United Nations with the Statute of the International Court of Justice annexed thereto (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212 and 213, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 9, 1945.)

231. September 6, 1945. Deposit by the Nicaraguan Ambassador with the United States Department of State of the Nicaraguan ratification of the Charter of the United Nations with the Statute of the International Court of Justice annexed thereto (see Bilateral Measures 212, 213, and 215, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 9, 1945.)

Pan American News

Inter-American Conference postponed

At a special meeting of the Governing Board held on October 5, 1945, it was decided to postpone the meeting of the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Continental Peace and Security, scheduled to be held at Rio de Janeiro beginning October 20. The Board will meet on November 20 to discuss the date again.

Message of the President of Peru

ON Peru's Inauguration Day, July 28, 1945, the retiring President, Dr. Manuel Prado y Ugarteche, delivered his final report to Congress on the work accomplished during his administration.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.—He spoke extensively of Peru's manifold contributions to the war effort of the United Nations both before and after its declaration of a state of effective belligerency against Germany and Japan and signature of the Declaration by the United Nations in February of this year. He also described the active participation of Peruvian delegates in recent international conferences, and the action of the Peruvian commission working in conjunction with a visiting committee from UNRRA, which fixed the nation's contribution to that organization at \$1,000,000.

On March 31, 1945, the Mixed Commission charged with marking the Peruvian-Ecuadorean boundary concluded its work, thus executing the protocol signed in Rio de Janeiro on January 29, 1942, and settling the long controversy over this frontier.

Congress ratified the Conventions, adop-

ted in various International Labor Conferences, on: working hours in industry; night work for women, and a revision of the same; right of agricultural workers to unionize; weekly rest in industry; equality of treatment for national and foreign workers in compensation for labor accidents; industrial health, disability, and life insurance; and underground work for women.

INTERIOR.—Dr. Prado told of his trips to different parts of the country in the last year to open important public works projects, such as a section of the Mantaro valley irrigation canal, the San Ramón-Oxapampa highway, the Olmos-Jaén-Bellavista highway into the Amazon region, the agricultural station at Tingo María, and some of the new port installations at Chimbote.

The creation of two new departments, Tumbes and Pasco, and of provinces in the departments of Amazonas, Ancash, Huancaavelica, Ica, Junín, and San Martín, and the new political demarcation of the department of Loreto raised the number of senators to 49, and of deputies to 150.

In accordance with the provisions of the Federal Constitution, a general election was set by decree of November 25, 1944, for June 10, 1945. The Government made every effort to see that the electoral process was carried out with strictest legality. On June 21 the National Electoral Jury proclaimed José Luis Bustamante y Rivero President of the Republic, José Gálvez First Vice President, and Eduardo Ganoza y Ganoza Second Vice President for the 1945-1951 term.

Outlining the progress made in communications within the country, Dr. Prado said that two new airmail services to the East had been established on the Linea Nacional,

one connecting Lima, Huánuco, and Tingo María, and one between Tingo María and Moyobamba, with stops at Uchiza, Juanjuí, Bellavista, Saposo, San Martín, Lamas, and Rioja. A new telegraph line joins Arequipa and Puno. In the year July 1944-July 1945 two new short-wave radio stations were opened at Uchiza and Carumas, and new short- and long-wave equipment installed in the station at Puerto de Ilo. Installation of three more short-wave stations is planned for this year. The National Telephone Company of Peru has been authorized to put in a radiotelephone system connecting Lima, Arequipa, Cuzco, Piura, and Iquitos.

JUSTICE AND LABOR.—Among the social welfare measures taken by the Government were provisions making laborers in the Government service eligible for the benefits of social security and for the enjoyment of pension and retirement privileges extended to public employees in general. Since workers whose annual salary exceeded 3,000 gold soles were not originally granted the benefits of social security, the increased wages made necessary by the war excluded a high percentage of workers from the enjoyment of these privileges. For this reason piece-workers and day-laborers in general have now been incorporated into the social security regime while a revision is being effected.

The National Social Security Fund has been authorized to issue special health and life insurance to workers over sixty.

PUBLIC EDUCATION.—Education, Dr. Prado said, has received preferential attention from the Government. Between December 8, 1939, when he took office, and the date of his final message, 3,962 primary schools and nursery schools were established, with 5,435 teachers. Numerous national secondary schools have been founded, including the Leoncio Prado Military School, a model of its kind. State subsidies to universities have been greatly increased.

The allotment for education in the national budget has risen from 13,445,820 soles in 1939 to 58,834,648 soles in 1945, an increase of almost 338 percent.

Dr. Prado spoke with pride of the national literacy campaign which was set under way by a supreme decree of March 4, 1944. This has been supplemented by a campaign to teach Spanish to those who speak only Indian tongues. On April 18 of this year another supreme decree enlarged the scope of the national literacy campaign, providing for a program to follow up and strengthen the instruction in reading and writing already received by adolescents and adults.

The enrollment in primary schools rose this year to 717,162 pupils of both sexes, an increase of 29 percent over that of 1939.

National high schools were established this year in Miraflores (for girls), Lucanas, Contumazá, and Pomabamba (for boys); and in Lima the San Marcos National High School was created to serve as a practice school for students of education at the University. The private high schools for girls in Jauja and Iquitos were converted into public high schools.

In the course of his administration, Dr. Prado said, 27 normal schools and 35 advanced training sections for teachers were established.

The Southern Regional Music School was created this year at Arequipa. The National School of Veterinary Science, created in 1944, had for its first year a budget of 200,000 soles and was able to grant scholarships to 50 percent of its students. Nineteen technical education centers, including vocational schools and agricultural and industrial training centers, were installed. The budget allotment for commercial education was increased this year to 306,180 soles.

Work on the new National Library at Lima will soon be completed. After two

years of untiring activity the National Library has brought its collection back to the same number of books it had before the fire—140,000 volumes. A Library Training School, Peru's first, has now been in existence two years.

The School Health Section, which includes a head physician, 18 assistant doctors for Lima and its suburbs, five specialists for the Central School Clinic, and 24 doctors for the provinces, as well as nurses and school inspectors and social workers, is doing valuable service.

NAVY.—The Office for General Coordination of National Transportation was set up in the Ministry of the Navy, entrusted with the task of maintaining a normal supply of materials for each region of the country according to its needs; of distributing the shipments of national exports and allotting shipping space for them; and of fixing standards of quantity and quality for foodstuffs and military and industrial materials which must be imported.

AERONAUTICS.—During his presidency, Dr. Prado said, more was done for the air arm than in all the previous history of the country. A carefully planned network of military airdromes and permanent and emergency landing fields has been constructed and fully equipped, and many new civil airports have also been built.

An increasing number of officers and non-commissioned officers from the Peruvian Air Force has been sent for training in the United States. Work on the new plant of the Air Cadets' School will be finished early next year.

TREASURY AND COMMERCE.—The Government has gone about strengthening public credit not only because it is a source of income but also because it is a medium of investment for savings and small capital. The success of the four issues of the Internal Loan in 1940 suggested the advisability

of increasing it by 50,000,000 soles, a sum authorized in January, 1944. This additional loan was floated in two issues of 25,000,000 soles each. Both issues were oversubscribed, and it was necessary to reduce the amount requested by banks in order to give more chance to small subscribers.

The cancellation of the Government's floating debt has been proceeding through the issue of Public Works bonds.

The operations of the Commercial and Savings Banks in loans, discounts, and advances on accounts current amounted to 564 million soles on June 30, 1945, an increase of 69 million soles over the figure for June 1944. Deposits as of the same date amounted to 82 million soles, 10 million more than the year before. The cash on hand of the Development Banks increased in that time from 32 million to 39 million soles. Mortgage credit operations (which were largely those of the Central Mortgage Bank of Peru) rose from 100 million to 108 million soles.

The Central Reserve Bank's gold reserves and means of payment in gold, which guarantee the national currency, amounted on June 30, 1945 to 199 million soles, at the official market rate of 7.09 soles per gram of fine gold.

Peruvian currency has maintained an almost constant rate on the exchange market. The rate of exchange with the United States dollar has varied between 6.485 and 6.50 soles for purchase and sale and with the pound sterling between 26.10 and 26.16.

On the stock market, government bonds were quoted as follows on June 30, 1945: Amortization Debt, 95.5; Internal Public Works Debt, 79.5; Unified Internal Debt, 85. Five percent mortgage bonds were quoted at 104 and 6 percent ones at 105. Deposits and Consignment Bank Bonds were quoted at 104.

The national budget for 1945 amounted

to a total of 446,546,667 soles.

Taxes brought into the Treasury by December 31, 1944 the sum of 114,072,888 soles, an increase of nearly 18,000,000 soles over 1943 tax returns, although the latter were based on the same rates of assessment.

Continuing its efforts to obtain the fairest distribution of the tax burden, the Government passed a law in January 1945 which raises considerably the minimum taxable income but increases individual and family exemptions.

During the period from July 1944 to April 1945, 2,061,000 metric tons of freight, representing a value of 954,604,000 soles, passed through the customhouse. Of this value, approximately 460,000,000 soles correspond to imports, and 490,000,000 to exports, thus maintaining Peru's favorable trade balance.

The Office of the Superintendent of Economy has continued with the job of expropriating and liquidating Axis property and enterprises. Since April 1942 this office has collected the sum of 41,960,983 soles, capital representing industries, business, and property of Axis subjects. The sum of 33,367,405 soles was put into the Deposits and Consignment Bank to be held in trust for real and juridical persons subject to restrictions, and represents 1,406 individual accounts, 437 of which are for Germans, and 969 for Japanese. The sum of 94,795 soles monthly is taken from this account for maintenance pensions for these persons and their families.

Guano production during 1945 has been 74,939 metric tons. The net profit to the National Treasury on last year's production was 3,294,857 soles.

The Import Office was given the task of analyzing the vital economic necessities of the country, distributing fairly the quotas allotted by the United States Government, granting import licenses, and negotiating

with foreign governments to obtain orders made by our importers.

DEVELOPMENT AND PUBLIC WORKS.—During the past year there were completed some 776 miles of graded roadbed, 50 miles of asphalt highway, 401 miles of hard-surfaced roads, and about 1,766 yards of new concrete and metal bridges. To keep up this work, an average of 31,000 workers a month were employed.

Forty-one different drainage projects for health purposes are being carried out in the country. Of these the principal ones are at: Huaraz, Chimbote, Camaná, Mollendo, Ayacucho, Cajamarca, Cajabamba, Cuzco, Sicuani, Paucartambo, Urubamba, Huancavelica, Huánuco, Tingo María, Pisco, Huancaayo, Jauja, Matucana, Tacna, Iquitos, Moquegua, Ilo, Puno, Huancané, and Tumbes.

The Peruvian Santa Corporation received decided support from the Government, which put at its disposal important lime deposits in the Yupán and Macate districts to facilitate the installation of a cement plant near Chimbote.

Work on the hydroelectric power plant in Cañón del Pato is well advanced, and the Santa Corporation is studying a national electrification plan to include a whole chain of plants whose sphere of action will cover all the populated regions of the country. The first of these is to be situated on the Mantaro and will use a fall of 3,215 feet. Its total capacity will be 740,000 kilowatts, and its zone of influence will include the Departments of Junín, Pasco, Huancavelica, Ica, and, through a power line some 186 miles long, the city of Lima and port of Callao. The second plant in order of importance will be built at the foot of the ruins of Macchupichu on the Urubamba River. It will have a capacity of 120,000 kilowatts and will provide power for the Departments of Cuzco and Apurímac. The third will be situated in the Pongo del Manseriche near

the port of Borja on the Marañón River. It will involve the construction of a dam some 230 feet high, which will create a 197-foot waterfall, with a minimum potential energy of 2,000,000 kilowatts. The Departments of Amazonas, San Martín, part of Loreto, Lambayeque, Piura, and Tumbes will fall within the radius of action of this power plant. In conjunction with this project, a system of locks will be built to make the river navigable for boats with a six-foot draught as far as the vicinity of Nazaret, about 93 miles upstream from the Pongo.

The Corporation is now building the road which will connect the Pan American Highway with San Juan Bay, passing by the Marcona iron ore deposits. The ore will be taken on barges to the port of Chimbote, where the steel mill will be situated. In order to have reserves of coal for the steel industry, the Santa Corporation has made a survey of 5,830 holdings of coal in the best coal region in the country.

A contract has been concluded with the Newmont Mining Company by which it has agreed to prepare a technical study and a budget for the construction of an electrolytic zinc plant in the Port of Chimbote.

The value of Peru's mineral production in 1944 reached 390 million gold soles, and this year it will surpass 400 million. During the first half of this year Peru was able to export 20 thousand metric tons of anthracite coal. In the same period the Peruvian Amazon Corporation received 1,322,773 pounds of rubber from its various agencies.

AGRICULTURE.—The Government has concluded a new contract with the Institute of Inter-American Affairs, prolonging the operation of the Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service (SCIPA) in Peru until December 31, 1946.

The SCIPA imported 93 thoroughbred bulls for breeding from the United States and acquired 15 Holsteins within the country.

From the United States and Argentina 536 hogs for breeding were imported.

The Official Colonization Center of Tingo María, established along the Huánuco-Pucallpa Highway, has pursued its work satisfactorily. Many new crops have been cultivated in that region, such as tobacco, citrus fruits, and pineapple, and the yuca and banana flour industries have been developed there. At Tingo María, through an agreement concluded with the United States, a construction plan has been carried out which includes administration buildings, laboratories, residences for the engineers working on the project, garages, workshops, barns, etc.

In accordance with the Conventions signed with the Government of the United States, the exportation of Peruvian bark (cinchona) has continued, 1,510,000 pounds of the 1944 crop having already been exported. Some 618 acres of selected cinchona trees are being planted on an official project carried out in collaboration with United States technicians.

Using lands ceded by various municipal governments and agricultural enterprises, the Government has created 22 nurseries for forest trees, and it has encouraged the development of forest concessions in order to increase the production of lumber.

Fresh-water fisheries have become an important factor in providing food for the mountain and forest populations. The Lake Titicaca Station, besides continuing the propagation of trout in restricted rivers and lakes, has also repopulated some of the waterways where fishing is being allowed.

The rice crop up until March 31 of this year yielded the equivalent of 902,000 bags.

PUBLIC HEALTH.—The allotment for public health in the 1945 budget was 15,640,810 soles.

The recently created National Vaccination Service has carried out a campaign against

smallpox in the Central Departments (Ayauccho, Apurímac, Huancavelica, Huánuco, Junín, and Pasco), and in the Department of Lima, having vaccinated 1,860,394 persons. Cases of this epidemic diminished 95.71 percent. The campaign against tuberculosis has gone forward with the construction and equipment of anti-tubercular centers. The modern Sanatorium of Lima, which will have 1,000 beds, is under construction.

Government meals for school children in Lima, Callao and suburbs increased in the year 1944-45 to 2 million lunches and 4 million breakfasts.

The opening last November of the Arequipa Hospital and Clinic brings to six the number of hospitals serving the National Social Security Fund, besides clinics in Callao and Pisco, and a whole network of rural medical stations. Hospitals used for this program are soon to be inaugurated in Chincha, Cañete, and La Oroya.—E. P. Da S.

Paraguayan debt service

In June 1945 the Government of Paraguay took steps to bring its foreign debt service into line when the President approved a proposal for the renewal of service on the nation's London loans, which was submitted by the Ministry of the Treasury to the Foreign Bondholders' Council in London.

The proposal, accepted by the Council for recommendation to the bondholders, provides for payment by Paraguay of £70,000 in cash as complete settlement for overdue interest, amounting to £176,080-10-0, on the 1871-72 London loans and on other loans made in accordance with the Paraguayan law of November 28, 1912, and commissions amounting to £3,400-2-6 due the Bondholders' Council; for renewal of amortization and interest payments on the aforementioned debts as of January 1, 1945;

and for cancellation of the sum of £4,110-16-6 owed on the so-called "certificates without interest" debt. This latter sum would be deducted in equal parts from the January-February 1946 installments of the amortization and interest payments referred to above.

The decree setting forth this debt adjustment plan also authorized the Ministry of the Treasury to negotiate with the Bank of Paraguay a General Treasury Bond in the sum of £70,000, to provide funds for the settlement. This bond would draw interest at 3 percent per annum and would be serviced by the surplus resulting from funds already earmarked for foreign debt service.

This effort at debt settlement was resorted to because, although by Decree No. 14,013 of August 11, 1942, the Paraguayan Government arranged for renewal of interest payments on the 1871-72 and 1912 London bonds, and although since 1943 such overdue interest payments have been made promptly, new interest accruals have continued to mount and the economic position of the country has not permitted it to do anything toward amortizing the long-standing debt. With acceptance of this new arrangement, the Government hopes to place itself on an even basis for continued prompt and complete debt service.

Mexican Academy of International Law

A group of jurists, specialists in international law, recently founded Mexico's first Academy of International Law. The first meeting was held at the Supreme Court Building under the chairmanship of the Academy's Director, Alfonso García Robles. The Academy plans to function as a center for research and advanced study. It will meet periodically for round table discussions, conduct semi-annual conferences, and will

publish papers in the field of international law. The topic approved at the first meeting for consideration at the first semi-annual conference was "The Inter-American System: Its Origin and Evolution; Its Structure; and Its Role in the United Nations Organization."

Copper mills in Chile

The first copper mills in Chile are now in operation at Santiago, making rolled copper and copper wire as part of the Government Development Corporation's electrification program. Their capacity is large enough to enable them to supply most of the rolled copper and copper wire needed in Chile, and they are also equipped to turn out tubes, conduits, locks, and other builders' supplies. This plant, built by Chilean capital and operated by Chilean workmen, marks an important step toward that development of heavy industry for which Chile is now working.

Mining developments in Mexico

A newly organized all-Mexican company is making ready to work a deposit of anhydrite located in the State of San Luis Potosí. This large deposit, estimated at 10,000 tons, was discovered in the 1780's and was exploited to some extent through a long period of time, although little if any exploitation has been carried on there for many years.

Another Mexican company, making an initial investment of 3,000,000 pesos, is preparing to produce aluminum and manganese on a large scale for Mexican industry and, if it has a surplus, for export. The company has acquired a site on the international highway a few miles north of Mexico City for a large treatment plant and other

necessary buildings. It will begin to operate as soon as it receives delivery on machinery and equipment. Another manganese plant started working in Baja California early in 1945.

Three metal treatment plants are soon to be installed in the State of Durango by three important mining companies, with the object of stimulating mining activities in that region. The companies have enlisted the aid of both state and federal governments in facilitating imports of machinery to put the plants into working order.

Because of the increasing demand for its products, Altos Hornos de México, S.A., the great iron and steel works at Monclova, Coahuila, is arranging for the installation of another blast furnace. Delivery is also expected soon of the machinery to service the plant's sheet metal department.

La Consolidada, S.A., Mexico's pioneer iron and steel works, established over forty years ago, which has plants in Mexico City and Piedras Negras, Coahuila, is supplying the National Railways with 35,000 tons of steel rails a year, according to a recent statement by company officials.

Ecuador seeks new revenues

A sweeping step toward augmenting national revenues was taken by the National Assembly of Ecuador on April 4, 1945, by the approval of a decree levying several new taxes and increasing existing ones.

First on the list are a 15 percent surtax on the tax paid on unearned income or a combination of unearned and earned income; a 10 percent surtax on earned income; and a 60 percent surtax on the working capital tax. Development Bank and municipal bonds, the proceeds of which are devoted to public works, are exempt from these surtaxes. Second, a new 5 percent ad valorem tax was levied on exports of cin-

chona and its products. A tax of 1 sucre (\$0.0726 U. S. currency) per pack was levied on imported cigarettes; the 0.5 percent annual tax on banking operations, repealed by a decree of August 1, 1944, was restored; a 30 percent surtax was added to the inheritance tax; a 10 percent tax was levied on motion picture theater admissions; and a 10-centavo increase in existing 30-centavo stamp taxes was made.

Furthermore, the Permanent Legislative Committee was authorized to raise or lower customs duties according to the kind of merchandise and the present duty, in order better to adjust the tariffs to the economic requirements of the country and to obtain a more equitable scale in the tariffs themselves.

Rural organization in Brazil

A Brazilian decree-law (No. 7449 of April 9, 1945) lays the groundwork for extensive rural organization throughout the country.

Article 1 of the law provides that "each municipality shall have a rural association, of which all natural or juridical persons engaged, in a business capacity, in rural activities of any kind—agricultural, extractive, pastoral, or industrial—as well as professionals connected with such activities, shall form part," and that "for the effects of this law, all those who are proprietors of rural establishments will be considered as engaged in a rural profession."

The purposes and functions of these proposed rural organizations are manifold. First of all, they aim to organize into groups that will work for the community interest all those engaged in agriculture, livestock raising, and industry, and they are to cooperate with public authorities (federal, state, and municipal) in strengthening the idea of organization among themselves. They will work to develop rural districts

within their respective municipalities; improve and modernize farming practices; promote training in farm and livestock techniques; serve as centers of information on farm settlement, rural sanitation, and all matters of local agricultural, livestock, and industrial interest; cooperate with officials in obtaining compliance with pertinent legislation, such as the rural code and the forestry, hunting, and fishing laws; sponsor fairs and exhibitions; organize for the benefit of their members arbitration, boundary, and tax evaluation services; and help develop the individual economy of members by favoring the acquisition of small properties and promoting the formation or expansion of rural cooperatives. They will also serve as technical consultative bodies, in cooperation with federal and state or territorial governments, in the study of rural problems, the compilation of statistics, and in directing rural activities generally in conformity with national economic policy and interests.

The new associations will obtain their maintenance and operational funds from the contributions of members, to be fixed by the respective organizations; the proceeds of a "rural tax" to be levied especially for the purpose; from subventions, grants, and legacies; and income received from association property or activities.

Aid to Paraguayan agriculture

Considerable legislation aimed at lending assistance, in one form or another, to the nation's agriculture has recently gone into the statute books of Paraguay.

Short-term non-interest-bearing loans for the purchase of agricultural products may be made by the Monetary Board of the Bank of Paraguay under authority granted the Board by Decree-Law No. 8,650, approved May 11, 1945.

This type of credit is authorized in accordance with Section c of Article 71 of the Organic Law of the Bank of Paraguay (Decree-Law No. 5,130 of September 8, 1944), which empowers the Monetary Board of the Bank to extend to appropriate purchasing agencies one-year loans for the acquisition of crops at legally fixed minimum prices. The loans are guaranteed by the Government and by the products themselves and will be repaid through sale of the products. The products must be insured and adequately deposited in warehouses and all sales must be made under supervision of the Bank's Monetary Department. With unanimous approval of the Board, a portion of the loans, not exceeding 20 percent of total loans made, may be renewed for periods of three months to two years.

This type of credit will be of distinct help to farmers and producers in disposing of their crops, without involving them directly in the loan operations.

Another measure (Decree No. 8,644 of May 10, 1945) authorized the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay to sell imported seed wheat to farmers at prices no higher than the farmers receive for their wheat in their respective localities. One of the basic aims of the Government's Five-Year Plan is to develop national agricultural production, and since the imported seed wheat recommended for cultivation by Ministry of Agriculture technicians, if sold at cost, would be prohibitive in price for farmers, this system of official aid has been adopted. The difference between the seed's cost and selling price will be underwritten by the Government until such time as adequate seed may be raised at home.

Still another measure concerns stock breeding. The Paraguayan Meat Corporation and the Rural Association of Paraguay were authorized by Decree-Law No. 9,049 of June 9, 1945, to organize and sponsor

cattle fairs, expositions, and contests in both the capital and the interior of the country. The Ministry of Agriculture granted the Meat Corporation the free use for fifty years of approximately 125 acres of land, a part of the Botanical Garden property, to facilitate the installation of exposition grounds and buildings in the capital.

The farm woman is the center figure of another decree (No. 8,868, approved May 28, 1945). This measure provides for the establishment and functioning of a Home Economics Center at Yaguarón, where farm women may be taught and given practical experience in efficient and economic home management. One such center is already functioning at Capiatá, and it has had such good results in helping to raise the standard of living in farm homes of that region that the Government is planning to continue the work in other areas as rapidly as means permit.

Nursery supplies for Mexican farmers

The office of the Mexican Department of Agriculture in the State of Jalisco is distributing trees, plants, and shrubs to campesinos and small farmers. A recently issued official list of nursery stock available for distribution showed that the Department had 764,600 fruit trees of varieties either native or acclimated to the country; 2,026,000 rubber plants that can be successfully developed in Mexico; 264,540 olive trees; and 65,000 coconut palms. The nurseries are also working to produce seed and stock of insecticidal and medicinal plants, such as pyrethrum and mint.

With the plants, which are given to the farmers without cost, the Department of Agriculture furnishes instructions on their cultivation.

School finance in Colombia

Colombia's national school fund will do much to strengthen the nation's primary school system, especially in rural districts where the need is greatest. Created by the school finance law of December 1944, the fund is to be used for training primary teachers, for erecting buildings for primary and normal schools, and for payment of teachers' salaries in regions where local revenues are too low. The law also requires that no less than 33 percent of the national school budget be devoted to primary schools and the training of primary teachers.

Colombian primary schools have been depending on three different sources for their support. The law of 1903 provided that school buildings should be furnished by the municipality and teachers' salaries by the department, while the national government paid for school supplies, and later for teachers' pensions. A law passed in 1934 required that no less than 10 percent of the nation's total budget be assigned to education, but in practice only a tiny fraction of that money has been spent for the benefit of primary schools.

In Colombia, as in many other countries, there is wide variation in local revenues. Some towns have not been able to provide decent school buildings; some departments have not paid teachers a living wage. In his defense of the finance law of 1944 the Minister of Education reported that the total primary school attendance as of December 1943 was only 679,273, out of a primary school age population (seven to fourteen years) estimated at more than two million. For every child in primary school there were two who were not in school, most of them country children because more than 70 percent of Colombia's population lives in the country.

The school fund created by the law of

1944 will reinforce local school revenues according to need, providing much where local revenues are low and school population large, less where local revenues are more nearly adequate. It will assist the towns in providing school buildings, and it will assist the departments in paying salaries, imposing the requirement that no teacher be paid less than 720 pesos a year.¹

School support provided from this fund is to be over and above the 10 percent of the national budget which is called for by the law of 1934. It will be financed from increased income and inheritance taxes, supplemented by a small tax on stock transfers. When the bill was first introduced the money was to be raised by indirect taxes on rentals and on soft drinks, but public opinion was strongly opposed to these indirect taxes, and direct taxes were therefore substituted in the law as finally passed.

Cuban labor regulations

Decree No. 1213, approved by the President of Cuba on April 21, 1945, prescribed regulations for the application of Cuba's Decree-Law No. 598 of October 16, 1934, in regard to paid work done by women workers in their homes.

These regulations provide, among other matters, that work done in the home must be contracted for under the same conditions that exist for similar work in factories or shops; the employer must keep a full record of the worker, description of work, wages paid, amount due the working woman for paid rest periods, and the discount made for maternity insurance. A day and hour must be fixed for giving out new work and receiving the finished product; a woman worker must not be made to wait more than half an hour to receive or deliver her work

¹ *The Colombian peso is worth 57 cents.*

and to collect her wages, but in case the waiting time exceeds that limit, she must be paid for the extra time at a rate proportionate to the wage for work she might have done in the same time. Employers must obtain licenses before they can contract for home work, and to ensure compliance with the new regulations, all existing licenses were canceled as of the date of the decree and a period of thirty days allowed for the procurement of new ones.

A haven for servicemen in Barranquilla

"At Barranquilla, Colombia's busy city on the Caribbean, there was an unusual center for service men," writes Virginia Leffingwell Hazen, an American resident of that city. "In a setting of picture-postcard tropics, financed and operated by Americans living in Colombia, this club gave the weary and lonely serviceman a chance to relax, read, play and, by no means least important, feast on juicy steaks and homemade pies.

"The Center opened early in 1943, when many submarine chasers were stopping at Barranquilla. The crews, exhausted by action in the then Nazi-infested Caribbean, had no place on shore where they could find rest and diversion. So a group of American women decided to start a canteen where these boys could get hot coffee and sandwiches. It proved to be such a success and the need so great (at times even clothing was provided for men who had met with disaster at sea) that it grew into a tremendous undertaking. The sandwiches evolved into full meals and two years later about 20,000 men had been served dinners with countless gallons of beer and cola drinks, not to mention pyramids of between-meal snacks, with peanuts and—a real home touch—even fudge.

"After those first sub-chaser days many other types of U. S. craft called at Barranquilla, their crews enjoying Center hospitality. That the boys loved it is evidenced by the many tokens of appreciation they sent back.

"To visualize the Barranquilla Center you must imagine a tropical scene complete with palm trees, steady blue skies, splashy bougainvillea, low pastel-colored houses and sleepy burros, but leave out the monkeys and pith helmets. This is a modern city, the residential section of which might easily, except for differences of vegetation, be a suburb in the United States. Half the year there is a cool breeze that keeps the leaves gossiping and there is always a tang of salty sea in the air. The sun points at you with a hot finger which makes the sailors rush for the cold beer all the faster.

"The Center was a one-story building designed in the usual Spanish Colonial style, around a central patio. A big ice box bulging with beer and coca cola was popular. Various rooms offered all sorts of games—ping pong, cards, jigsaw puzzles. There were a rest room and shower and a gift shop where the boys found well-selected silver jewelry and trinkets at fair prices.

"Back of the house was a garden with long tables and benches, and with hammocks strung between the trees. Here dinner was served every evening, steaks being prepared on an open grill, and when the boys had downed all they wanted of the first course a procession of homemade pies, donated by the women of the community, emerged from the kitchen.

"There is nothing emptier than Christmas among strange faces, in a strange country speaking a strange language, and the Center tried to relieve this holiday loneliness. Last Thanksgiving turkey with all the frills was served all Americans in the city, civilians



Courtesy of Virginia Lettingwell Hazen

THE UNITED STATES SERVICE CENTER AT BARRANQUILLA

paying their way, servicemen invited guests. Christmas week the house looked like a composite picture of the traditional American home. Tropics or no tropics, there was a fireplace (of wood with crepe paper bricks) with snow (cotton) on the mantle and logs "burning" brightly. Wreaths, colored lights, candles and Santa Clauses all created a Christmasy atmosphere and some families invited the boys to their homes for dinner that night. On New Year's Eve especially elaborate refreshments were served.

"Thus the Service Center kept up its work for these boys whose spirits needed refueling as much as their ships."

We see by the papers that—

- Independence Hall, Philadelphia, was the scene last September 16 of a celebration of Mexican Independence Day. The guests were some of the Mexican railway workers

who by agreement between *Mexico* and the *United States* came to this country to take the place of American workers called to other duties by the war. Other Mexicans helped out in agriculture. Those who came in the war emergency numbered about 300,000, although not more than 125,000 were here at any one time. (See *Workers from Mexico*, by Dorothy M. Tercero, BULLETIN, September 1944.)

- Four easily operated cinchona extraction plants have been made for use in *Latin America*. Since these plants are demountable and fairly small, they can be carried over mountain trails and operated near where the cinchona trees grow, requiring only one educated person in addition to laborers. The product of these machines is totaquina, which contains quinine and other related chemicals. It is considered a satisfactory remedy for malaria and is produced at a very low cost. The machinery was devised

by the Cinchona Research Unit of the Engineer Board, *United States Army*.

- A colony of 1400 Poles, men, women, and children, has found temporary refuge in León, Guanajuato, *Mexico*. The colony is operated by Polish funds.

- *Brazil*, which is deeply interested in obtaining a larger supply of petroleum within its own territory, has engaged an American expert to work under the National Petroleum Council and carry out the necessary geological surveys. The well known Brazilian engineer, Guilherme Guinle, will undertake petroleum exploration in an area of 25,000 acres near Ribeirão Claro, on the border between the states of Paraná and São Paulo. About three or four hundred barrels of oil per day are now produced in Bahia.

- A population census will be taken in *Argentina* beginning December 1 of this year in fulfillment of a decree issued October 6, 1943.

- The second official estimate for the 1944-1945 corn crop in *Argentina* placed the total at 3,070,000 tons, a reduction of almost 65 percent from the 1944 crop. The acreage planted in 1944 was 9 percent less than that planted the preceding year, and furthermore there was a severe drought.

- Since 1942 the Argentine National Bank has been granting credits to small farmers, requiring no guarantee beyond a good reputation on the part of the borrowers. More than 27,000 loans, amounting to 41,506,000 pesos, have been made to improve farms and diversify production by the purchase of poultry, cows, pigs, sheep, and goats.

- The Government of Ecuador set aside the sum of 6.5 million sucres in the 1945 budget for amortization of its debt to the Central Bank. A legislative decree of March 10, 1945, authorized use of that sum for con-

solidation of all the Government's debt to the Bank, including both internal and foreign debt. Once the debt is consolidated, a time limit is to be fixed for its service by the payment of 6.5 million sucres a year until it is extinguished. The maximum annual interest to be paid by the Government on the consolidated debt will be 2 percent.

- The *Argentine* Ministry of Agriculture has decided to push agricultural instruction in primary schools by advising teachers, starting agricultural clubs, and promoting the planting of school gardens. A railroad car equipped with educational films operates in the province of Buenos Aires.

- That cooperatives play an important part in the milk supply of *Rio de Janeiro* is shown in the figures for last April. In the state of Minas Gerais, which furnished 54 percent of the seven million liters (1 liter equals 1.1 quarts) of milk brought into the Brazilian capital, 59.11 percent of its share originated in cooperatives; and of the 42.51 percent share of the state of Rio de Janeiro, 88.20 percent was furnished by cooperatives. The 3.49 percent originating in the state of São Paulo came from independent dealers.

- Two million sucres of the funds accumulated in the Central Bank of Ecuador for reconstruction in the provinces of Loja and El Oro (regions which suffered much destruction during the Ecuadorean-Peruvian boundary dispute) have been released by the Department of Public Works for immediate use. Half the money will be spent for a light and power plant for the city of Loja and the other half for a workers' housing project in the Province of El Oro.

- November 10, 1945 was the first anniversary of the *Brazilian* decree-law authorizing the establishment of unions of rural workers or employers.

- Late in June 1945 Carlos Chávez, internationally known Mexican composer-con-

ductor, resigned the post he has held as director of Mexico's Symphony Orchestra since he himself founded the Orchestra in 1928. The resignation, tendered because he wished to devote his full time to study and composition, was to become effective on September 9, 1945, the end of the 1945 concert season. The Orchestra's Board of Directors, however, loathe to have the Orchestra lose the artistic guidance of its distinguished conductor, arrived at an arrangement with him whereby he will continue as musical director and conductor but be relieved of the organizational and administrative details that have hitherto required so much of his time.

• April 3 of each year was recently designated as Cuban Song Day (*Día de la Canción Cubana*). It will be marked by an

annual award of three prizes of \$1000, \$500, and \$250, respectively, for the three best Cuban songs composed during the year and presented on the Day's program. The Minister of Education is charged with working out publicity for the Day and fixing rules for the annual song contest, and the sum of \$3,000 per year is allocated to defray the expenses of the celebration.

• Ecuador's former Polytechnic School was recently replaced, in accordance with a presidential decree, by a new Higher Polytechnic Institute which will function as an independent body with study programs and other regulations approved by the Department of Education. The Geological Institute of Ecuador will become one of the sections of the new Institute and others will be established as soon as possible.

NECROLOGY

FLORENCIO HARMODIO AROSEMENA.—Former President of Panama and civil engineer. Born in Panama City, September 17, 1872. Educated in technical schools in Germany and Switzerland. Graduated from Munich University in 1895. Did engineering and contracting work in Panama, Ecuador, Cuba, and Central America. Built the Government Palace, the National Theater, the City Hall, the National Institute in Panama, and played a prominent part in construction of the Concepción-Puerto Armuelles Railroad and the Guayaquil section of the Ecuadorean railway system. Chief engineer of the United Fruit Company at Bocas del Toro, Panama. Elected President of Panama in 1928 and served until overthrown with his government in a revolution on January 2, 1931. Died in New York August 30, 1945.

ALEJANDRO PONCE BORJA.—Ecuadorean jurist, statesman, and teacher. Born in Quito in 1891 and received the degree of Doctor of Jurisprudence and Social Sciences at the University of Quito in 1914. Appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1934 and for several years after leaving that post served as legal consultant to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Delegate to the Ecuador-Peru Boundary Commission, 1936-38, and to the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, Rio de Janeiro, 1942. For many years served as professor of law at the Central University, Quito; was legal consultant for the Mortgage Bank of Ecuador and the Southern Railway; and for a time was Director General of the Central Bank of Ecuador. Died in Panama, January 10, 1945.

JOSÉ MARÍA MONCADA.—Nicaraguan ex-president, general, publisher, and writer. Born in Nicaragua in 1869, he began a long and stormy career when in the 1890's he took part in uprisings against the Zelaya regime, published *El Centinela* of Granada until it was suspended, dug himself out of the Managua cell where he was held as political prisoner, and escaped to Honduras, the home of his ancestors. In Honduras in 1898 he wrote his first book, *Lo Porvenir*, a delicate piece of romantic fiction woven around a theme of resistance to tyranny, with a program of administrative and legislative organization worked into the story. After a decade of literary and political activity in Honduras, Guatemala, and El Salvador, he led a force into Managua as part of the 1909 rebellion against Zelaya, and served in the cabinet until the next change of administration in 1911.

In the turmoil of the 1920's General Moncada supported President Sacasa against rival factions, and distinguished himself by his command of the march of 1927 from the east coast to the outskirts of Managua. There he accepted the proposal of President Coolidge's emissary, Colonel Stimson, that a free election be held under supervision of United States troops. General Moncada himself was elected president, and served a four-year term beginning January 1, 1929. Peace, schools, and roads were the announced aims of his administration; in his first two

years he succeeded in doubling the number of schools in Nicaragua and multiplying school enrollment by five, besides opening a school of agriculture and organizing a ministry of agriculture.

One member of President Moncada's cabinet was General Anastasio Somoza, and when in 1936, late in the succeeding administration, General Somoza took possession of the government, he was supported by his former chief. Yet in 1944, as senator by virtue of his ex-presidency, General Moncada cast one of only two votes against the measure which would prolong President Somoza's tenure, adding to his vigorous opposition: "This is not a call to war, or to civil disobedience."

General Moncada was always a strong advocate of close relations with the United States, and eager for American influence, especially along educational lines; but at the same time he was opposed to dictation from American business interests and to American support for reactionary elements in Central American politics. He was the author of numerous books and articles published in New York, Madrid, Tegucigalpa, and Managua; among them are *Cosas de Centro América*; *Educación, trabajo, y ciencia*; *El gran ideal*; *Imperialism and the Monroe Doctrine*; *Social and Political Influence of the United States in Central America*. His death in Managua on February 23, 1945 was followed by eight days of national mourning.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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BULLETIN OF THE

MISSISSIPPI
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A CORNER IN TAXCO

DECEMBER

1945

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 55 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901-2; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the orderly settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of the Pan American system.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote friendship and close relations among the Republics of the American Continent and peace and security within their borders by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are freely avail-

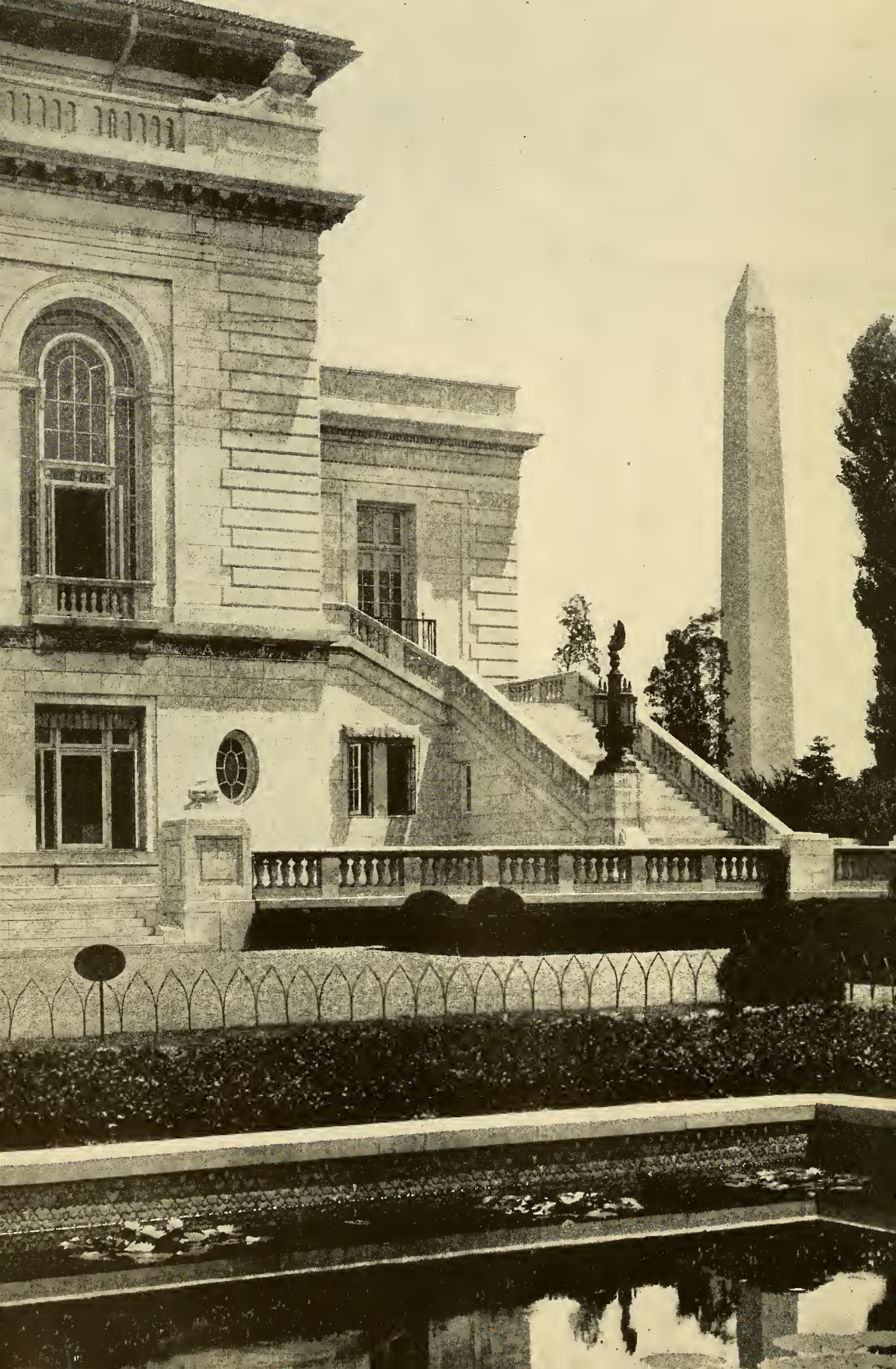
able to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 135,000 volumes and 2,400 maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES, SANTIAGO

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXIX, No. 12



DECEMBER 1945

Visit of the President of Chile to Washington

PRESIDENT Juan Antonio Ríos of Chile, who was recently in Washington as the guest of President Truman and the government of the United States, was invited by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to a special session in his honor on October 12. President Ríos was escorted into the Governing Board room by a special committee and was seated at the right of the Honorable James F. Byrnes, Chairman of the Board and Secretary of State of the United States.

Mr. Byrnes then welcomed the Chilean President in the following words:

MR. PRESIDENT:

It is with great pleasure that I extend to you on behalf of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union the warmest possible welcome. We are fully acquainted with the important service which you have rendered and are today rendering to the people of Chile. Your career has been marked by a constant and unswerving devotion to the welfare of the masses of the people of your country. The advanced position which you have taken in the field of social security and social legis-

lation has set a standard which has had far-reaching influence beyond the borders of your country. The people of Chile may well congratulate themselves on having as Chief Executive a man in whose administration the interests of the masses of the people receive primary consideration, and whose sincere concern for their welfare has increased the opportunities available to the average citizen.

In the domain of inter-American relations, the record of Chile is one of which you have every reason to feel proud. The government and the people have from the earliest period of their national existence shown a deep sense of continental solidarity, which has found expression in cooperation with their sister republics of the Americas and contributed much to strengthening the Pan American movement. Your representatives on this Board have been unremitting in their efforts to further the purposes for which the Pan American Union was founded.

We welcome you today, Mr. President, as the worthy representative of a great people and as a staunch supporter of the principles on which this Union of the American Republics rests.

To this friendly greeting the President of Chile replied with a glowing expression of continental solidarity, saying:



PRESIDENT RIOS ADDRESSES THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

MR. SECRETARY OF STATE:

I am profoundly grateful for the words Your Excellency has spoken in the name of all the members of the Pan American Union. They honor and inspire me; but I must regard them in their real sense, that is, as a homage to the Chilean nation, and to the proverbial qualities of its established institutions, of which my country is so proud. The people of your country well know the meaning of the democratic system, its nature in the nation, and the effort necessary to establish and defend it in its outward and formal juridical manifestation as well as in the civic conscience that is its ultimate and permanent bulwark.

This circumstance lends particular importance to your remarks. Further emphasis is given by the fact that they were made in this institution, the traditional and authentic symbol of continental cooperation, and on a day which marked the beginning of a change in the world's standards of respect for man, for his rights and for his liberties.

Chilean democracy is a century-old organization, which safeguards and stimulates the civic consciousness of a people jealously observant of the rule of law it freely has imposed. In Chile no one acts, and nothing is done, outside the limits fixed by the Constitution of the Republic. Under it, the individual is respected and guaranteed in his rights, and to each is granted equal opportunity for honor and advancement. Under the

protection of our established institutions, the branches and agencies of the State correctly interpret the progress of Chilean society. They are endowed with the means of action necessary for the defense of a good way of life and for the continuing improvement of an existence consonant with dignity, justice, and self-respect. Our social and political life is, therefore, not only a democracy but a democracy with an intense feeling for humanity and justice.

The international conduct of Chile constitutes one of its most noble and clear-cut traditions. The solid basis of this conduct rests on loyal and reciprocal friendship with other countries and on the strict and spontaneous fulfillment of duties imposed by continental solidarity. It implies active cooperation in the creation and maintenance of an order capable of assuring to the universe a just and enduring peace. Thus our decision to sign the document which history will record as the Charter of the United Nations was a decision taken with sincerity and conviction.

Our national life, like that in all the evolving democracies of America, is dignified and exalted by participation in the continental community of nations. The democratic spirit is fraternal and peaceful. The masses, upon whom fall with greatest weight the anxieties of overcoming material difficulties, understand each other's needs and resources; this comprehension leads to understand-

ing and good will. Furthermore, the essential basis of the inter-American system rests upon the carrying over into the international sphere of democratic national government, that is, upon the recognition of the equality of sovereignty, from which is derived the right of nations to control their own destinies.

This principle of equality and mutual respect, as well as the rule of non-interference in purely internal affairs, has given a solid moral quality to the inter-American system, permitting it to function, regardless of circumstances, so as to strengthen the solidarity and peaceful fellowship of nations.

The history of the Americas sets an example with respect to the precedence of the rule of law over the elementary reality of act and force. Even in those extreme cases where prior conciliation was lacking, the exercise of inter-American principles imposed a moral force that reestablished the balance of the law.

Our hemisphere may proudly proclaim before the world that its regional system has ceased being merely a hope, since it has already had long and satisfactory practice. Our peoples have seen their rights and their friendly relations safeguarded, because they have made it possible to examine on a plane of absolute equality the problems that affect them, and because they have recognized the irrefragable ethical value of respect for their pledged word and for treaties freely negotiated.

In this historic hour, while the dramatic proof to which human destinies have been put is still fresh in mind, Chile brings to the creation of new methods of world security a proven historic contribution: its constant and faithful adherence to the democratic system, not only in its internal life, but also, as a natural extension, in whatever affects any part of its international life.

The undeniable fact of continental solidarity cannot fail to have a decided effect upon the life of the world, because of the peaceful significance of American culture and its inherent purpose, the development of superior forms of society and social action. Our solidarity, which implies respectful consideration for the rights and guarantees of treaties, must at the same time stimulate performance of a task of greater scope and permanence: that of awakening the conscience of all America and establishing an ever higher level of civic standards and humanity.

Just as an aggression against one of us injures us all, just as we feel represented collectively in

the action of each and the honor gained by each, so too we vehemently desire that the economic and human potential of the Americas may really be the sum total and index of our respective capacities, as they are strengthened, increased, and harmonized by our joint effort.

A requisite for inter-American collaboration in the maintenance of a system of world security, if its influence is to be as beneficial and powerful as possible, is the adjustment of democratic methods to the development of useful systems and ability in the field of economic and social progress.

The right of man to a better life, the increasing participation of mankind in this elemental right, truly constitutes the essence of the democratic way of life. But the rights of man and their permanent spread and realization necessitate something more than the formulation and observance of merely political standards. They demand that life be dignified by raising the social level of the masses, and by assuring a proper and humane standard of living.

Today, just a year ago, the great President Roosevelt, a man whose memory is an honor to his country and to America, a civic leader in the political and spiritual history of mankind, uttered serious words, as all his words were, filled with profound moral feeling and grave political warnings. With his extraordinary foresight, President Roosevelt reminded us of the fundamental necessity of taking precautions, in the postwar period, against the snare of **indifference and insensibility**. This eminent statesman feared that once mankind had recovered peace and material comfort, it might overlook the duty of building, in a productive ethical and social sense, upon the tragic lessons taught by the catastrophe of war. A fundamental warning, proper to such a warm friend of peace and of law; also to the thinker in whom there was dominant the conviction that the only permanent achievements of juridical evolution are those which acknowledge that their foundations rest on the advancing moral and civic conscience of the people.

Meeting here on the anniversary of the day on which these wise thoughts were voiced, I believe that to recall them here is the best homage I may render to one of the greatest defenders of peace and of the supreme interests of democracy, justice, and liberty.

The people and the government of Chile wish only to continue the work of cooperation within the norms thus fixed with such loftiness and clarity. Such will be the line of her action within

the community of the hemisphere, in order that this action may, on an ever greater scale and over an ever wider field of influence, contribute to world peace, to the advance of civilization, and to the dignity of man.

After the luncheon given by the Governing Board, President Ríos visited the First Pan American Book Exposition, which opened the same day in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union, showing much interest in the 5,800 books gathered from all the American republics by the Library of this institution.

The members of the President's personal party included the following:

Senator Eleodoro Domínguez, Señor Dr. Raúl Brañes, Member of the Chamber of Deputies; Señor Dr. Benjamín Claro Velasco, former Minister of Education of Chile; Colonel Ernesto Wurth-Rojas, Military Aide to the President; Lieutenant Carlos Ríos, son of the President.

It was on October 11 that the President of Chile arrived at the White House, where he was greeted with military honors. That evening President Truman gave a large state dinner for President Ríos; it was attended by Cabinet officers and other officials of the United States Government, who were happy to exchange views with a man so well known for his democratic principles.

The next day President Ríos moved to Blair House and in the evening was the guest of the Secretary of State at dinner.

Other days were filled with official conversations and visits to points of interest, among which were an excursion to the Beltsville Research Center of the Department of Agriculture. The President's hosts on this occasion were the Honorable Clinton

P. Anderson, Secretary of Agriculture and the Honorable Henry Wallace, Secretary of Commerce. It will be recalled that while the latter was holding the portfolio of agriculture he made a visit to several Latin American countries, including Chile.

In return for the numerous attentions shown him, President Ríos gave an elaborate reception at the Chilean Embassy, thus closing his four-day stay in the capital.

In New York, Mayor La Guardia headed the reception committee that welcomed President Ríos. Together they placed the new sign changing the name of Sixth Avenue to Avenue of the Americas, a friendly gesture to all the nations of this hemisphere. The President's program was crowded. A reception and luncheon offered by the Mayor, a dinner by the Pan American Society, and a reception by the Chilean colony were outstanding events.

President Ríos took time to go to Hyde Park and pay his respects at the tomb of President Roosevelt, whom he greatly admired. Later that day he saw West Point.

After a brief stop in Philadelphia, a few days in Canada, one in Chicago, and three more days in San Francisco and Los Angeles, President Ríos bade farewell to the government and people of the United States and took a plane for Mexico.

President Ríos talked freely to the American press. "The end of the conflict," he said, "demands of us a reconversionary process very difficult to carry out. The self-denial with which our people endured sacrifices during the war will continue to permit us to advance each new step required to transform the economy of the nation."

The First Pan American Congress of Social Service

ELISABETH SHIRLEY ENOCHS
Chairman, United States Delegation

SPECIAL SIGNIFICANCE is always attached to any event which is the first of its kind, or to the launching of a new enterprise. But the First Pan American Congress of Social Service, held in Santiago, Chile, September 9-16, 1945, was important for many reasons in addition to its pioneer character. This Congress marked the coming-of-age of the oldest school of social service in Latin America. It was a manifestation of the rapid growth of a new profession in the various American republics. Likewise, it gave proof of the professional solidarity and continental vision of the social workers of the western hemisphere.

It was in March 1925 that the Junta de Beneficencia of Santiago officially inaugurated a school for the training of social workers for the many institutions administered by that body. Today there are six schools of social work in Chile—three in the capital and the others in the provinces—and the number of graduates is approximately 650, a number still insufficient to meet the demand. The example set by the Junta de Beneficencia under the leadership of Dr. Alejandro del Río has been followed by one country after another until today schools of social work may be found in virtually every country of South America as well as in Mexico, Costa Rica, and Cuba. The enthusiasm which this new profession has aroused and the significant leadership which social workers are giving in public and private agencies was evident in the size and distinction of the delegations sent by almost

every republic of the western hemisphere to the Congress in Santiago.

Held under the joint official auspices of the Ministry of Health and of the Junta Central de Beneficencia, the Congress received support from the leading public and private agencies of Chile as well as from the schools of social service and the individual social workers.

The effectiveness of the preparations was the result of the tireless efforts of a distinguished and representative organizing committee with the following officers, in addition to ten members prominent in their profession:

Chairman: SRA. LUZ TOCORNAL DE ROMERO, Director of the School of Social Service of the Junta de Beneficencia of Santiago.

Secretary: SRA. VALENTINA MAIDAGAN DE UGARTE.

Treasurer: SRA. RAQUEL COUSIÑO DE VICENCIO.

The efficient planning and careful preparations made by this committee were evident from the moment the first delegation landed at the Santiago airport to find a reception committee to greet them, hotel accommodations arranged, transportation provided, and folders bearing the name of each delegate ready to acquaint them with the program of the sessions, and with the social events planned for the entertainment of the foreign guests.

To those who have become familiar with the history of the profession of social work in Latin America, there was something deeply moving about the arrival of the vari-

ous foreign delegations, since many of them were led by men or women who have been pioneers in this profession. For instance, the twenty delegates from Argentina were headed by that revered Master, Dr. Alberto Zwanck, founder of the first school in his country, which was opened in June 1930 under the auspices of the Museo Social Argentino. It was Dr. Zwanck who first suggested the idea of a Pan American Congress of Social Work, an idea which was endorsed in 1941 by a group of directors of Latin American schools of social work then visiting the United States, with the added recommendation that the meeting be held in Argentina. Dr. Zwanck generously relinquished the honor in order that the Congress might be held in Santiago to mark the twentieth anniversary of the first school of social work in Latin America.

The seed planted by Dr. Zwanck has had a healthy growth and there are now ten schools of social work in Buenos Aires and in the Provinces. It was inspiring to see this united and happy family of delegates and the spirit of harmony and cooperation which exists among the schools of Argentina.

The fourteen delegates from Brazil, led by Dr. Moacir Velloso Cardoso de Oliveira, Director of the Department of Social Welfare of the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare of that country, and including representatives of schools in Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Pernambuco as well as of various public and private social agencies, were living proof of the acceptance of the social worker in that great country where schools of social service may now be found from Manaus, far up the mighty Amazon, to the southern states and various localities in the interior.

Countries such as Panama in which as yet no school has been established, but where interest is keen, were represented by young men or women who are studying social work

in Santiago with a view to helping to develop this profession upon their return to their native lands. When Srta. Loyda Vieto G., the delegate of Panama, proposed that a bronze statue of Dr. Alejandro del Río be erected in Santiago de Chile, the suggestion was unanimously acclaimed, since each Latin American delegation was conscious of the debt of gratitude owed to the man who inspired and brought to reality the establishment of the first school on the southern continent.

Organization of the Congress was effected at a preparatory session held in the School of Laws of the University of Chile, under the chairmanship of the president of the Organizing Committee and director of the Escuela de Servicio Social de la Junta de Beneficencia, Sra. Luz Tocornal de Romero, who by acclamation was elected president of the Congress. Vice presidents elected at this session were: Dr. Alberto Zwanck, Chairman of the delegation of Argentina, Dr. Moacir Velloso Cardoso de Oliveira, Chairman of the delegation of Brazil, and Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs, Chairman of the delegation of the United States. Sra. Valentina Maidagan de Ugarte, who had so effectively served the Organizing Committee as secretary, was elected by acclamation secretary of the Congress, with Srta. Luz Sánchez Bustamante of Bolivia and Srta. Argentina Mora of Ecuador as assistant secretaries.

On motion of Dr. Zwanck of Argentina, tribute was paid to the first school of social service established in the western hemisphere—the New York School of Social Work, founded in 1898—by the designation of the director, Dr. Walter W. Pettit, member of the United States delegation, to speak in behalf of the foreign delegates at the formal inaugural session.

The preparatory session also had to perform the unexpected task of selecting by lot the papers to be presented at the various



Courtesy of Elisabeth Shirley Enochs

DELEGATES TO THE FIRST PAN AMERICAN CONGRESS OF SOCIAL SERVICE

section meetings and plenary sessions of the Congress. The number of papers sent to the Congress on various themes was so great that it was impossible to have them all read even in summary, but all will be published in the Proceedings of the Congress. These will constitute an important record of progress and experience in the field of social work during the last two decades.

The formal inaugural session was held in the Senate Chamber of the National Congress, in the presence of a distinguished audience which overflowed the capacity of the Chamber. After an opening address by the Minister of Public Health, Dr. Sotero del Río, the delegates were officially welcomed by the president of the Congress, whose speech presented a panorama of social work in Chile since 1925, when the first school of social work was created. The address of Dr. Walter Pettit, which followed that of Sra. Luz Tocornal de Romero, dealt with the international aspects of social work and the possibility of inter-American and international cooperation in this field.

The following days were given over to a

heavy program of work, visits to social agencies, and social events. Each morning two working sessions were held at the School of Laws, one limited to representatives of schools of social work in which such questions as standards, programs, admission requirements, field work, and so forth, were thoroughly debated. The second section provided opportunity for review of practical experience in every phase of social work. Some of the liveliest discussions followed the presentation of papers on the role of the social worker in industry, the care of children born out of wedlock, and the development of social work in rural areas. Every afternoon was devoted to visits to specific agencies—hospitals, clinics, child welfare agencies, sanatoria, health centers, legal aid bureaus, and industrial establishments in which social workers are employed to look after the welfare of the employees. The visit to the tuberculosis hospital and sanatorium known as "El Peral", at which a luncheon was offered to the delegates by the establishment, was a typical experience, as were visits to various institutions adminis-

tered by the Children's Bureau, the Social Security Fund, the "Pedro Aguirre Cerda" model home, the Casa de la Madre, the Central Social Service Office of the Elvira Matte de Cruchaga School, and many others. The evenings were given over to plenary sessions at which papers on medical social work were presented by Dr. Walter Pettit and Sra. Luz Tocornal de Romero, on the welfare of children and adolescents by Dr. Alberto Zwanck, Srta. Augusta Schroeder of Uruguay, and Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs. One of the highlights of the plenary sessions was the presentation by Srta. María Rosario Aráoz, Director of the School of Social Service of Peru, of a paper on social service and the rural problem. Touching as it did upon the age-old problem of land tenure and use and the living conditions of agricultural workers on the American continent, this paper won the applause of the delegates as one of the most thought-provoking presented before this gathering.

The great variety of social problems in the different American countries and the ingenious ways in which social workers are mobilizing to solve them were clearly revealed as the different delegates described their experiences in the many different forms of activity which are included under the general term of social service. The work of the Secretariados Sociales of Bogotá described by Srta. Restrepo, Assistant Director of the School of Social Service in that city, the creation of special offices for the purpose of making economic and social surveys under the auspices of schools of social work, described by Dr. Emilio Sánchez Rizza of Argentina, the work of the Escuela Polivalente de Visitadores de Higiene described by Srta. Juana Prieto Rojas of Paraguay, the way in which volunteers and professional workers have collaborated in a vast program under the auspices of the Legião Brasileira de As-

sistencia, reported by Dr. Luis Carlos Mancini of Rio de Janeiro, and the fusion of North American and Latin techniques of social work as applied in the child welfare field in Puerto Rico, described by Mrs. María Pintado de Rahn, a member of the United States delegation and Director of the School of Social Work of the University of Puerto Rico, were among the many which attracted attention and inspired discussion.

Noteworthy throughout the sessions was the interest manifested by individual social workers in the principles of the Atlantic Charter and the frequent references to the Four Freedoms, as providing inspiration for the work of members of this profession. The conviction that social services should be developed and administered in such a way that the Four Freedoms may become realities in the lives of peoples throughout the world was given eloquent expression on repeated occasions. It was very obvious that the Atlantic Charter has made a deep impress upon the thinking of many people in our sister republics.

It is obviously impossible in a few pages to do justice to a review of social progress covering a span of 20 years in Latin America. But the First Pan American Congress of Social Service was not content merely to review past achievements. It was even more interested in looking to the future. This fact was evident in the resolutions which called for raising standards for the training of social workers, for developing professional associations among graduates of schools of social work, for establishing an Inter-American Committee of Schools to promote closer cooperation among them. Looking beyond the confines of this continent, the Congress asked that each delegation bring to the attention of its country's representative in the United Nations Organization the feeling of the Congress that provi-

sion of an organization for social welfare similar to those which may be created for health, education, and cultural relations, under the Economic and Social Council, is an urgent necessity. So strong was their conviction that such an entity should be created that they pledged to it in advance their most decisive cooperation.

Support of the Division of Labor and Social Welfare of the Pan American Union and of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood in Montevideo was also voted, and a special resolution was adopted recognizing the part played by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, the American Association of Schools of Social Work, and the Office of Inter-American Affairs in promoting closer cooperation among schools of social service and social agencies in the American Republics.

The closing session was marked by a dramatic moment when it became necessary for the Congress to recommend the meeting place of the Second Pan American Congress of Social Service. Silence held the auditorium as Dr. Alberto Zwanck, the revered pioneer from Argentina, rose to make a motion. With true greatness of soul this notable leader voluntarily, and for the second time, relinquished an honor which he had originally sought for his own country. "I propose," he said, "that the Second Pan American Congress of Social Service inaugurate its sessions in São Paulo and conclude them in Rio de Janeiro as a tribute to the great nation of Brazil which has given such expansion to the profession of social service and which, among the various Latin American countries, has made such a notable contribution to the war effort and the cause of

the United Nations." Wild applause burst forth and the chairman of the Brazilian delegation, deeply moved, rushed to embrace his colleague from Argentina.

It is impossible to conclude this all too brief report on the Congress without a word of deep appreciation for the generous hospitality of the Chileans toward their foreign guests as evidenced in the numerous and delightful social events planned in their honor. Teas and receptions at the three schools of social service where delegates had opportunity to mingle with faculty and student-body; the enchanting afternoon at Las Vizcachas, the magnificent *fundo* of Dr. and Sra. de Romero in the outskirts of Santiago; the luncheon offered by the Association of Social Workers of the Chilean Government; and the banquet given by the Organizing Committee; and last, but not least, the all-day trip to Viña del Mar which brought the delegates together for a last post-congress demonstration of companionship and which afforded opportunity to enjoy the incomparable scenery of Chile's seacoast, were among the highlights of a hospitality which is both traditional and world-famed.

As final goodbyes were said each delegate left Santiago with a deep sense of gratitude. Gratitude for the privilege of participating in an historic event. Gratitude for the healthy growth of a new profession. Gratitude for the warm friendship renewed or formed among delegates to the Congress. And most of all, gratitude to the Chilean nation, which again has established itself as a pioneer in the never-ending effort to improve the social and economic conditions of her people and by so doing, to inspire other nations to follow her noble example.



OPENING OF TELEPHONE SERVICE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

It was only 18 years ago that this link was completed, when President Coolidge spoke from the Pan American Union in Washington to President Calles in Mexico City on September 29, 1927.

The Development of Telecommunications in the Americas

FRANCIS COLT DE WOLF

Chief, Telecommunications Division, Department of State

IN 1840 when Pedro II, the enlightened young ruler of Brazil, wished to send dispatches to outposts in remote parishes, he commandeered swift horses and skillful riders to carry his words. But in spite of fast mounts and hardy men those words were usually weeks in passage. Today a Rio de Janeiro businessman may speak directly by landline telephone or radio-

telephone, perhaps both, with his business associates in the most distant cities of the Republic. For Brazil's huge rivers and near-impenetrable forests are as small as they appear on the map in a schoolboy's geography to the radio wave that travels as speedily as light and to the electrical impulse that transmits man's spoken words across immense distances in a matter of seconds.

The interesting though short history of the development of telecommunications in the Western Hemisphere lies between the days of early independence when mounted messengers rode for weeks to deliver a short message and the present time when literally

The Pan American Union celebrated on September 1, 1945, the twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. L. S. Rowe, as Director General. During these years the American republics have together made great progress, spiritual and material. In honor of the Director General, the BULLETIN is publishing a series of papers on inter-American relations, 1920-1945, of which this is the fourth.

millions of messages go out across the world in minutes.

Strangely enough, the story of telegraphic communications between the American continents begins with the laying of the great Atlantic cables between the United States and Europe, for prior to 1880 the only means of sending communications telegraphically between the continents of this hemisphere was by relay through the intermediary points of London and Lisbon, both of which were connected by submarine cable with terminals in South America.

It was not long after the brilliant American artist-inventor, Samuel F. B. Morse, discovered that he could transmit intelligence by means of sound patterns produced by the opening and closing of an electrical circuit that another great American, Cyrus Field, conceived the idea of using this new system called telegraphy to interconnect the nations of the world by means of a network of trans-oceanic submarine cables.

The Atlantic was first spanned by such a cable in 1858, when a British company succeeded in laying a submarine cable between Ireland and Newfoundland; however, the cable lived but three months and then, because of defects, had to be abandoned. Six years later another British company laid a cable again connecting Ireland and Newfoundland, and by 1869 cables were extended to New York. With the successful laying of a cable between England and Brazil in 1874, an indirect telegraph service between the United States and South America was inaugurated. However, the service was unsatisfactory and rates such as \$7.50 a word prohibitive. It is an axiom that cables follow trade routes, and prior to 1880 almost all of South America's trade was with Europe.

But by 1882 an American cable company completed a line from New York to the Central American countries and thence to Colombia and Peru. In 1890 the system

was extended down the west coast of South America to Valparaíso. After an extremely difficult engineering job, this line was extended across the snow-capped Andean peaks to reach Buenos Aires. This technical achievement made possible the first direct telegraphic connection between North and South America.

The completion of this inter-American telegraphic system acted as a catalyst on cultural and commercial exchange among the American nations and the countries connected by this modern means of quick communication benefited noticeably from it. However, cables continued to be laid between South America and Europe and the greater trade and cultural exchange continued to flow between Europe and South America rather than between North and South America.

It was not until the first World War and the opening of the Panama Canal that a considerable increase in commerce between North and South America was reflected in the business ledgers of this hemisphere. During and after this period inter-American trade routes became major trade arteries and the increased commercial exchange manifested itself in another way by a proportionate increase in telecommunication facilities. By this time cables extended from various terminals on the North Atlantic coastline as far south as Valparaíso on the west coast of South America, touching and connecting all important points en route.

From this period on the development of telecommunications between the two continents was steady. However, because of the geographic and economic factors involved, development within and among the South American Republics themselves proceeded slowly and with great difficulty. International telegraphic and telephonic communication was very inadequate. For example, it was not until 1928 that a cable could be

strung across the towering Andes to connect and integrate the systems of Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay. Here is an example of how difficult it was to provide international telegraphic and telephonic communication in South America. Fifteen of the line's many miles are constructed of heavily armored cables strung on steel poles anchored to the mountain surface, and some of the line-mileage is set in grooves carved in solid rock. At about the same time, telephonic communication between Buenos Aires and Montevideo was provided by means of a telephone cable laid under the Rio de la Plata.



Courtesy of I. T. and T. Corporation

TELEPHONE CABLE BETWEEN CHILE AND ARGENTINA

The telephone system between the Americas had to avail itself of radio before it was possible to communicate from each country with practically all the others.

Then the answer to the geographic and economic problems that were retarding the growth of communications facilities within and among the South American countries came with the development of radio and its twin technical wonder, aviation. Experiments with the Hertzian wave had of course been in progress for many years, and early in this century ships began to make extensive use of radio ship to ship and ship to shore communication, but it was not until the twenties that wireless telegraphy burst full-grown upon the scene ready to go to work for the nations of the world. Geographic barriers were no more and economy was served by the introduction of radio transmitters and receivers that were much less expensive than the hundreds upon hundreds of miles of costly cable necessary to bridge the great distances involved. Localities formerly set apart from the modern world by lack of modern communication found themselves linked by means of radio and aviation with the most up-to-date commercial and cultural centers. The transition has been so rapid that people who have never seen a steam engine or an automobile now take the infinitely more complex inventions of radio and powered flight for granted. The Peruvian Indian no longer bothers to look up as a giant airliner, in constant radiocommunication with ground stations along its way, casts its cruciform shadow over his slow-moving llama train. The age of railroads and automobiles has been skipped, the ultra-modern age of human flight at the speed of sound and communication at the inconceivable speed of light encompasses all.

It was a short technical step from radiotelegraph to radiotelephone and now powerful radio stations in operation in most South American countries interconnect the major portion of telephone and telegraph systems in Latin America. In turn, these networks

are connected with the giant systems of the United States by submarine cables, by landlines, and by both radiotelegraph and radiotelephone circuits.

The following is a simple chart describing the telecommunications facilities in operation between the United States and the Republics of Latin America. A cursory examination of it will illustrate the nature and extent of these facilities.

*Types of communication with the
United States*

Nation	Submarine cable telegraph service	Radio- telegraph	Radio- telephone
Argentina	x	x	x
Bolivia	x	x	x
Brazil	x	x	x
Chile	x	x	x
Colombia	x	x	x
Costa Rica	x	x	x
Cuba	x	x	(1)
Dominican Re- public	x	x	x
Ecuador	x	(2)	
El Salvador	x	x	x
Guatemala	x	x	x
Haiti	x	x	x
Honduras	x	x	x
Mexico	x	x	(3)
Nicaragua	x	x	x
Panama	x	x	x
Paraguay		x	x
Peru	x	x	x
Uruguay	x	x	x
Venezuela	x	x	x

¹ The number of submarine telephone cables between the United States and Cuba obviates the need for radiotelephone facilities.

² A new radiotelegraph station under construction at Quito by the Ecuadorean Government will provide direct radiotelegraph contact with the United States.

³ The number of landlines connecting the United States and Mexican systems obviates the need for radiotelephone.

An indication of the rapid growth of radiocommunication and indirectly, of all types of communication among the Americas, may be observed in the frequency with which inter-American radio conferences are being convened. The first of these confer-

ences was held in Habana in 1937, approximately fifteen years after radio began to be widely used as a means of communication. The second and third have followed rapidly: Santiago, Chile, in 1940 and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in September 1945.

At the Habana Conference in 1937, a decision was made to undertake cooperative action with respect to the radio needs of the Americas. This decision laid the foundation for future conferences on radio-communication among the Americas. The brief though important second conference at Santiago in 1940 revised the Habana inter-American arrangement concerning radio-communications. The third conference, recently held in Brazil's colorful capital, has laid the groundwork for inter-American cooperation in all phases of radio, land-line telegraph and telephone, and cables. It provided for the expansion of the inter-American convention from "radio" to "telecommunications" and the extension of the functions of the Inter-American Radio Office to those of an Office of Inter-American Telecommunications. In consequence that Office, while being left in the city of Habana, is being largely reorganized and its functions greatly increased. The Rio de Janeiro Convention also provides for the holding, in addition to the regular plenipotentiary and administrative conference, of conferences of limited agenda which are to serve as emergency meetings called on short notice for the solution of numerous urgent telecommunications problems which cannot await study at formal gatherings. For the first time general principles regarding rates are included in such an Inter-American Convention and provisions made for the rapid and economical transmission, dissemination, and interchange of news and information, including radio-communications to multiple destinations. In addition to the Convention there was

A YOUNG SOUTH AMERICAN SPECIALIZES IN RADIO

Programs on the air help to make the Americas better known to each other.



Courtesy of O.I.A.A.

adopted a resolution concerning aviation communications and one having to do with freedom of information in radiocommunications. There were also adopted several recommendations, among them being one for the calling of a special World Conference on high frequency broadcasting, and others on reduction of rates for telecommunications service and elimination of special taxes. Provisions were made, too, for studies of numerous other problems looking toward future inter-American negotiations.

The logical result of this is the establishment of closer unity and harmony among the American Republics in the field of telecommunications, facility for more effective service in that field, and the exchange of information so necessary to a full inter-American understanding and the interchange of ideas.

The Americas are undoubtedly entering an age in which closer cultural and economic cooperation will be reflected in a rapid growth of telecommunications facilities, and radio is the technical key to that future development. In a few years the savannas and mountain ranges of South America and prairies and hills of the United States will

be invaded by tall metal towers standing singly, miles apart. They will be relaying man's thoughts with automatic radio repeaters. This coming age of intense intercommunication was unforeseen until the advent of a laboratory miracle, inexpensive, space-spanning radiocommunication.

Mass communication and cultural exchange by the medium of radio broadcasting already play a vital part in inter-American relations. Major United States broadcasting companies have affiliations with more than 180 South American stations for the purpose of broadcasting news and commercial and cultural programs. This interchange is invaluable to the future relations of all the nations of this hemisphere, and it is indeed gratifying to note its appearance and increase, for a combination of geographic proximity and political common sense demands the best possible cultural and economic cooperation among the American Republics.

Man has long dreamed and striven for universal brotherhood and the relations among the nations of this hemisphere give a clear promise of its achievement. Good will and good communications in all their phases will surely help us attain this goal.

By Road from Mexico City to the Guatemalan Border

CARL W. HOFFMAN

UNDAUNTED by natural obstacles but aided by generous cooperation on the part of Mexican officials and engineers, two young Americans, H. Lloyd Crocker, Jr., and Carl W. Hoffman recently pioneered a path through southern Mexico and so achieved a record as the first men to drive a standard motor car from Mexico City to the border of Guatemala. The success of this odyssey and the authenticity of their claims to distinction are documented amply by the written attestations of government authorities encountered along their itinerary.

Much has been published in late years about the Pan American Highway,¹ and many have been the predictions as to the date when it will be possible to motor from the United States to Patagonia over a hard-surfaced and easily negotiable road. Thousands are familiar with the excellence of our southern neighbor's Highway No. 1 from Laredo to Mexico City and Nos. 2, 3, and 4 from the Mexican capital to Vera Cruz, Acapulco, and Guadalajara respectively, but, except for hearsay and hopeful pronouncements in the press, the stretch of the projected motor road from Mexico City to the Guatemalan border has remained a nebulous vision.

To ascertain its status and perhaps reach some concrete conclusion with respect to the time that must elapse before Mr. and Mrs. American can set out in their family car for a comfortable jaunt into the alluring lands

to the south was the purpose of these adventuresome Americans. It was not to be an expedition in the *National Geographic* or university research manner, fully and especially equipped against any and all contingencies, but a trial to see whether a standard American automobile could traverse this territory successfully. The two young men reasoned that this great highway will be available to the host of postwar tourists only if it can be traveled by usual means, and the true test of its present form and prospects for completion can be made only by a regular model. Their vehicle was a 1940 Pontiac sedan whose speedometer, upon departure from Mexico City, registered 63,810 miles and whose tires averaged only fair condition. If they could win their way to Guatemala, they reckoned almost anyone else could do likewise.

They finished their course, but against odds that make them loath to predict when standard automobiles will be able to negotiate this path with safety and comfort for passengers. Quite possibly the Inter-American Highway (the section of the Pan American Highway from the United States to Panama) may be open all of the way to Guatemala in a couple of years.

Their goal, the Guatemalan frontier, was reached on the twenty-second day out from Mexico City, but this fact offers no criterion because these men are camera enthusiasts and they took plenty of time to revel in the scenic wonders along their route. Actual elapsed time clocked less than one hundred hours. Rest, relaxation, side trips to visit

¹ See "A Quarter Century of Road Building in the Americas," by E. W. James, *BULLETIN*, November 1945.



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

A PEACEFUL SCENE IN RURAL MEXICO

Many Americans will soon be heading south to visit a next-door neighbor.

interesting historical remains, Indian villages, and fiestas, and a day spent on repairs to the car absorbed the balance of the travel period.

The Inter-American Highway is of course no dream. As a matter of fact, in spite of forests, swamps, mountains and rivers to be conquered during these days of emergency when shortages of manpower, materials, and machinery are universal, work on this immense project has shown remarkable progress. The utmost in engineering skill has been evoked to overcome seasonal hazards and irregularities of terrain. What these Argonauts found in Mexico was construction in all stages from mere lines of surveyors' stakes overgrown by jungle to graveled grades in readiness for their con-

crete surface. Resident engineers supervising the operations of contractors to whom divisions of the highways have been entrusted welcomed the travelers and helped them to solve their problems of supply and repairs. These engineers report to the Director General of National Roads, who had given the Americans a letter of introduction.

From Mexico City to Puebla the hard-surfaced highway is superb. This stretch of about 92 miles should be driven leisurely in order to enjoy the gorgeous scenery, and especially the views of Mexico's second and third highest volcanoes, snow-mantled Popocatepetl and Ixtaccihuatl. Beyond Puebla the highway winds in and out through mountains and valleys, each curve opening new

vistas of loveliness on the way to Oaxaca. Between these two cities the Inter-American mileage is 288, four-fifths of which consists of hard oiled macadam, perfectly graded and banked, while the balance is broad and well graveled. This makes a very pleasant day's drive. Near Oaxaca lie the ruins of Mitla and Monte Albán, which no tourist should fail to visit. Both can be seen in a day, but since Oaxaca also offers much of interest another day should be spent to view the city itself.

South of Oaxaca rolling hills are succeeded by mountains. Deep gashes have been cut into their sides to permit the passage of the highway and intervening valleys are piled with the fill from excavations to carry the road across deep depressions. Here the two Americans, as they followed detour after detour around bridges under construction, began to realize what a difficult project the Inter-American Highway is. Rock and

gravel slides are common, and the motorist must be careful not to drive too close to the edge of the road lest he precipitate another.

Broad shallow rivers which had to be forded on account of the present lack of completed bridges probably gave the intrepid pathfinders their greatest thrills. Some of these they crossed after dark. Their procedure was to wade across to be sure no large boulders would interfere with the passage of the car. Twice the car stopped in mid-stream, but fortunately it was possible to start the motor again after the fan belt, spark plugs, distributor, and generator had been wiped dry. Not far from Tehuantepec, at one o'clock in the morning, the battery, spent from so much driving in low gear, failed utterly. By the best of good fortune a Mexican taxicab put in its appearance and its driver got them safely across the tricky bed of the Tehuantepec river and into the town of the same name where, despite the



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

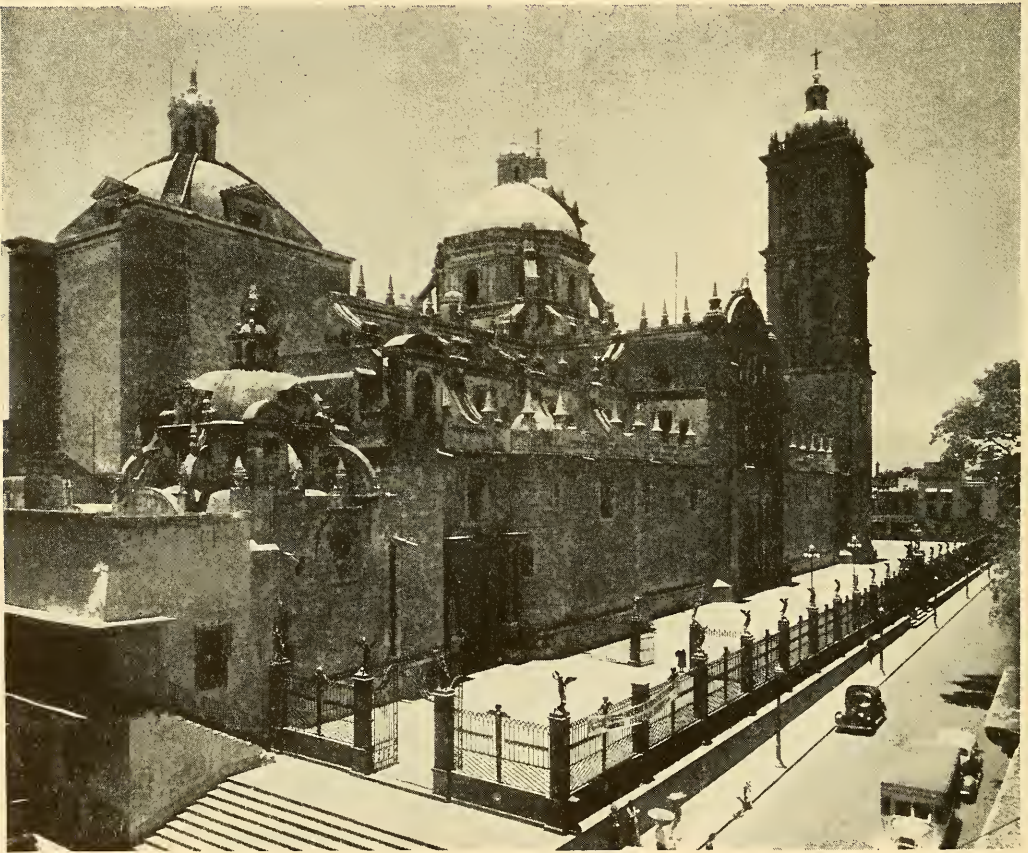
SURVEYORS' STAKES ON THE INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY

This was heavy going for a car.

lateness of the hour, a hotel opened its doors to shelter the *Norteamericanos* who had driven all the way from Oaxaca.

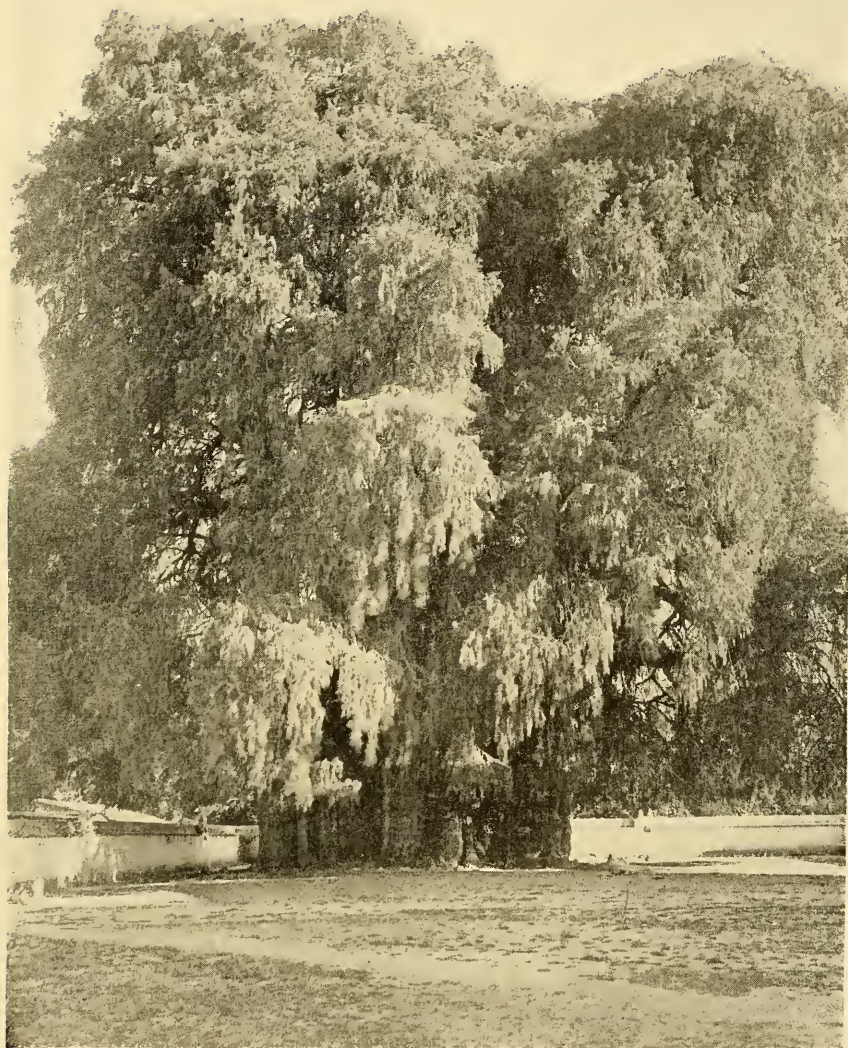
From Tehuantepec the Inter-American Highway goes directly to Juchitán, but the Americans left it after a few miles for a trip to Ixtepec for repairs. Unable to use their car for two days, they hired another and drove to Juchitán to enjoy a fiesta which lasted throughout the night. Here color was rampant. The women of Tehuantepec, acknowledged to be among the most beautiful in Mexico, wear costumes which display bright reds and yellows and are embroidered heavily with flowers. A lace headdress completes the holiday outfit.

The engineer in charge at Juchitán expressed some doubt about the ability of the Americans to reach Arriaga but courteously detailed a guide to accompany them. Beyond this point the highway was represented only by stakes, though some grading and culvert work had been done and gangs were engaged in clearing the route of trees and in doing other preliminary tasks. In one section the travelers had only a line of stakes to steer them through fields of corn. Through jungle country and along oxcart trails they wandered. Frequently it was necessary for one to proceed ahead and scout for stumps between the ruts. Roads suitable for high-wheeled oxcarts are too narrow and the



PUEBLA CATHEDRAL

A fine road between Mexico City and Puebla permits the motorist to enjoy the superb scenery.



THE GREAT AHUEHUETE TREE AT TULE, NEAR OAXACA

This is one of the oldest living objects in the Americas. It is 162 feet in circumference and about 140 in height.

crowns too high for low-slung automobiles. Finally, after fording many dry river beds, they reached Miltepec, where the resident engineer and his wife, after they had recovered from the amazement caused by the first Americans to penetrate so far, offered them the most cordial hospitality.

Beyond Miltepec the trail disappeared into a maze of paths which diverged and converged again and gave the travelers frequent occasion to laugh over the repeated "*Usted no se pierde*," for they missed the course more often than they found it. Their guide, however, showed admirable mettle

and, after negotiating cuts through hills where the fenders scraped on both sides, removing rocks by hand, and essaying a treacherous ford, they reached Zanatepec, their gas exhausted. The government's supervising engineer remedied this lack and put them up for the night. He thought they would not be able to reach Arriaga, but he gave them an Indian, armed with a machete, to be their helper, and they started for Chahuities.

From this point, by devious paths they continued through deep sand until their motor stalled. The Indian was dispatched for an ox team whose driver, as a protection against like contingencies, was persuaded to follow the sedan as far as Arriaga. His services were not needed again, though many were the trials of the day. With his machete the Indian cleared brush and stumps and the three men joined forces to remove stones or lay them as approaches to high,

dry river banks. Eventually they gained Arriaga, with an engine almost red hot.

The actual mileage from Mexico City showed 666 and, although the travelers had been ten days on the road, their net elapsed driving time was less than sixty-two hours, of which the last 106 miles from Ixtepec to Arriaga consumed a little more than twenty-six hours—a rate of four miles per hour. Repeatedly they were told theirs was the first standard sedan ever to invade the remote state of Chiapas and, in fact, they collected a number of affidavits to this effect. This, then, explained why whole villages turned out to see them and give whatever services they needed.

At Arriaga the Inter-American Highway turns away from the National Railway, which continues to skirt the Sierra Madre range on the Pacific side so as to reach the Guatemalan border at Suchiate, where a recently finished bridge completes the rail connec-



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

BETWEEN OAXACA AND NEJAPA

Deep gashes have been cut into the mountainsides to permit the passage of the highway.



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

WOMEN OF TEHUANTEPEC

Bright reds and yellows in their dresses give them a gay appearance.

tion between Mexico City and Guatemala City. The road makes a long arc north and east to Tuxtla Gutiérrez on the other side of the mountains. The travelers enjoyed a fine all-weather road, but, as they climbed continuously, became enveloped in dense clouds. A cool wind suddenly dispersed the mists and in brilliant sunshine they continued eighty miles to Tuxtla over a fine paved road.

The modern appearance of Tuxtla was quite a surprise to the motorists, although, as the capital of Chiapas, it is an important center. To reach San Cristóbal, fifty-four miles farther on, they had to ascend to 9,500 feet. Gone was the lushness of the tropics. Pines lent the country the general appearance of America's North Woods and beauti-

ful panoramas compensated for the chill and wind of the altitude.

San Cristóbal had much to offer—an attractive hotel, a delightful change to cool temperatures at an elevation about equal to that of Mexico City, and a fiesta replete with the comedy of a native bullfight. In the Indians from nearby villages, however, the Americans found the greatest source of interest. Particularly colorful were those from Zinacatan.

Though the Indians' legs were bare—unusual for such a chill climate—above their loincloths they were clad in heavy wool of natural color. Over simple loose blouses they wore short serapes with light pink stripes, fringed at the ends for added protection to chest and shoulders. Besides



Courtesy of Mexican Tourist Assn.

NEAR COMITÁN

Pines lend the country a northern look.

these, each wore a large grey neckerchief from which bright cerise tassels hung down the back. Occasionally one bound his kerchief in pirate style about his head and let the tassels fall over one ear. The Zinacatan straw hats were all alike. Above their flat wide brims rose low conical crowns from whose points sprouted bright red tassels and from whose bands streamed rainbow-hued narrow ribbons. Their sandals, reminiscent of ancient Rome, consisted of a flat piece of sole leather held beneath the foot by thongs and another piece curved high around the heel as a protection against rolling rocks. The thick inflexible soles caused the Indians to walk in the flat-footed manner of ducks.

Since Chiapas, prior to the arrival of the Inter-American Highway, had been unconnected by motor roads with the other sections of Mexico, it is a land of many horses and expert riders. In San Cristóbal the

travelers witnessed a fiesta novelty. A heavy rope was stretched across one of the streets at a height of eight or nine feet above the ground. From it hung bits of colored ribbon at whose ends were circles of metal about the size of wedding rings. A hundred feet down the street a score of young men bestrode high-spirited horses decked out with heavily embossed and silver mounted saddles and trappings. One after another the young men would circle for a start and then at full tilt gallop toward the rings with a pencil held at arm's length. To run the pencil through a ring and not break the ribbon called for the utmost in balance and accuracy. Each successful attempt was rewarded by cheers from the crowd and a ribbon worn over the shoulder.

During the drive of sixty-one miles from San Cristóbal to Comitán, the Americans encountered various types of road from plain

dirt to stones laid by hand. In one place they descended stairs, for the Indians had built steps instead of a gradual incline. Comitán is the last large town north of the Guatemalan frontier, and so it was necessary for the travelers to visit the customs and immigration offices and the Guatemalan consulate, at each of which official courtesy reduced the formalities to a minimum.

According to the Public Roads Administration map, the Inter-American Highway as projected turns south from Comitán to cross the Sierra Madre and rejoin the National Railway not far before it reaches Tapachula (almost on the Guatemalan boundary). An alternative route is now under consideration by the Mexican and Guatemalan authorities. The Americans found no real road beyond Comitán, but simply followed such trails and oxcart tracks as seemed to take the desired direction toward the nearest contact with the border. So far is this territory from the bounds of ordinary civilization that even the carts have hand-made wheels, none too round. In this last traverse of thirty-two miles the car rose to pine-clad heights and descended to sub-tropical depths where millions of orchids literally weighed down the trees.

At last, over a trail which barely existed and required a scout to walk ahead of the car continuously and remove rocks, with fenders flapping and chassis dented but engine still in order, the car stopped in front of a wooden shack which bore the legend: *Garita Juárez. Estación Vigilante y Recaudación. Aduana Fronteriza*. Here the Aduana (customs), the officer in charge of the border patrol, and a soldier greeted the Americans excitedly and asked a million questions.

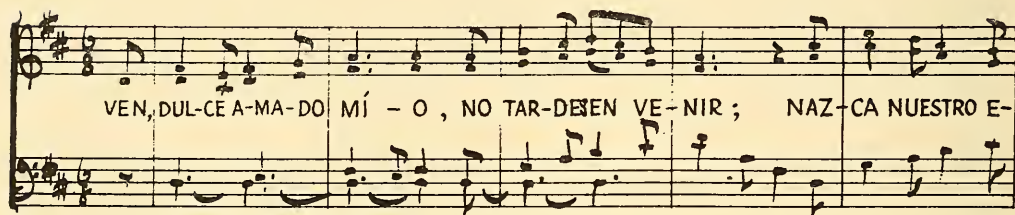
This was not quite the end of the trip. The border patrol chief offered to accompany the tourists to the actual line, and once more the car breasted steep slopes until it came to a stone boundary monument on the top of a small mountain. An affidavit was obtained from the Guatemalan customs and, dead tired, the Americans returned to Garita Juárez for the night. Worn out by the long trek but happy to relax, they reveled in the attainment of the distant goal—the first Americans to travel the Inter-American Highway, actual or projected, to the border of Guatemala, and the pioneers in whose footsteps thousands from all parts of the Americas are destined to follow in the eventful and joyous years to come.



Four Latin American Christmas Songs

VEN, DULCE AMADO MÍO

(Nicaragua)



Llegue la hora deseada
que del cielo turquí
cantando gloria bajen
querubes mil a mil.

Venga la paz al hombre
y el que ha de redimir
nos muestre ya su rostro
para amarlo y servir.

García, Secundino, *comp. Cancionero folklórico nicaragüense*, t. I. Managua, D. N., Talleres nacionales, 1945, p. 13-14. Arranged by Charles Seeger.

VILLANCICO

(Chile)



SE-ÑO-RA DO-ÑA MA-RÍ - A , BOM , BOM , BOM , YO VEN-



GO DEL O-TRO LA - DO , BOM , BOM , BOM , Y AL NI-ÑO JE-SÚS LE



TRAI - GO , BOM , BOM , BOM , ZA-PA-TI - TO CO-LO-RA - DO , BOM , BOM , BOM .

Ritmo con palmadas

(HABLADO) HÁCELE BOMBITO, HÁCELE BOM BOM , CON EL ZAPATITO , CON EL ZAPATÓN.

En el portal de Belén, bom, bom, bom,
hay un nido de ratones, bom, bom, bom,
y al patriarca San José, bom, bom, bom,
le han comido los calzones, bom, bom, bom.

(Spoken): Hácele bombito, hácele bombom,
con el zapatito, con el zapatón.

(Rhythm is clapped.)

From a recording of the singing of Georgina Guerra Vial de Oliva, made in the Music Division of the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. 1945. Arranged by Charles Seeger.

PASTORES

(Costa Rica)

Capitanes



TO - DOS LOS CO-ROS TRIUN-FAN-TES CE - LE - BRAN CON A - LE - GRÍ - A EL
 RIAR-CA JO-SÉ DI-CHO - SO, QUE TAN-TO HA-BÉIS ME-RE- CI - DO, EL

Coro



NA - CI-MIEN-TO FE- LIZ QUE DA LUZ EN ES-TE DÍ - A. 2. PA-
 TE - NER A DIOS POR HI - JO Y A MA-RÍA SU A-MA-DA ES- PO - SA. EN



TRE - MOS, PAS- TO - RES, VA- MOS A OF - RE - CER, AL



HI - JO DE DIOS Y A SAN-TA I - SA - BEL.

CAPTAINS:

Cantemos todos, bailemos
 con angelical dulzura
 y alabemos la hermosura
 de María, José y su Niño.

CHORUS:

Y el Eterno Padre
 así nos dió el verbo
 por ser el rescate
 de su inmenso precio.

Costa Rica. Secretaría de educación. *Colección de canciones y danzas típicas, 3er folleto*, San José, Imprenta Nacional, 1935, p. 31. Arranged by Charles Seeger.

AGUINALDO

(Venezuela)

Allegretto

A - LLÁ A-BA - JO VIE - NEN LOS TRES RE - YES

The first system of musical notation consists of two staves. The upper staff is in treble clef and the lower staff is in bass clef. The time signature is 2/4. The melody is written in a simple, folk-like style with eighth and quarter notes. The lyrics are written below the notes.

MA - GOS PA - RA VER SI AL - CAN - ZAN LA

The second system of musical notation continues the melody from the first system. It consists of two staves with treble and bass clefs. The lyrics are written below the notes.

MI - SA DEL GA-LLO PA - RA VER SI AL -

The third system of musical notation continues the melody. It consists of two staves with treble and bass clefs. The lyrics are written below the notes.

CAN - ZAN LA MI - SA DEL GA-LLO

FIN D.C.

The fourth system of musical notation concludes the piece. It consists of two staves with treble and bass clefs. The lyrics are written below the notes. The system ends with a double bar line and the words "FIN D.C." (Da Capo).

The Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture

JOSÉ L. COLOM

Chief, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, Pan American Union

DELEGATES from all the American republics were present in Caracas to attend the Third Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, which met from July 28 to August 7, 1945. Representatives of the Pan American Union, the Inter-American Council of Commerce and Production, the International Labor Organization, the United Nations Interim Commission on Food and Agriculture, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and the Inter-American Statistical Institute also attended.

Thanks to preliminary arrangements made by the Venezuelan government, the Conference had a very good start. The chairman of the Organizing Committee was Dr. Ángel Biaggini, then Minister of Agriculture, and its secretary general Dr. Manuel Arocha, both of whom were elected to corresponding positions in the Conference itself. Señor Roberto Guirola, Minister of Agriculture of Guatemala and chief of that country's delegation, was chosen vice president of the Conference. The beautiful new secondary school named in honor of Andrés Bello, one of the great sons of Caracas, proved to be an ideal meeting place for the assembly, since it provided a spacious auditorium, committee rooms, and offices. A competent secretariat rendered valuable service.

The Conference was organized into six technical commissions, which dealt respectively with the six sections of the program (published in full in the May 1945 number of the BULLETIN). The general subject of

the program was agriculture and the post-war period, and the six sections were entitled: 1, money and agriculture; 2, present agricultural production and its adjustments to the postwar period; 3, foodstuffs and raw materials; 4, markets and transportation; 5, agricultural migrations in the post-war years; and 6, agricultural statistics. The Second and Third Commissions were the most largely attended.

The Final Act of the Conference contained 98 resolutions, only a few of which can be summarized here. The first expressed the thanks of the Conference to the Government and people of Venezuela for their hospitality. The second commended the Pan American Union for its work in advancing the progress of agriculture in the American republics and expressed the hope that this work would be still further expanded.

Several resolutions requested the Pan American Union to assume new duties. Among these were 55, which recommended that the Pan American Union consider the possibility of organizing soon an inter-American conference on the conservation of natural resources, and 88, which suggested the creation in the Pan American Union of a section to compile, interpret and distribute data on agricultural migration and colonization in America.

The Inter-American Institute of Agriculture at Turrialba was congratulated by Resolution 3 on its excellent work of organization, construction, and research. Resolution



Courtesy of José L. Colom

OPENING SESSION, THIRD INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON AGRICULTURE

23 recommended that the Institute establish a Cacao Institute in Ecuador. Resolution 57 proposed that the Institute should co-operate with all the American countries in studies of new agricultural machinery. This testing has, in fact, already been begun at the Institute under the supervision of a member of the Engineering Department, and will be described in the Third Annual Report of the Institute and in periodical statements. The Institute was also asked, by Resolution 59, to correlate curricula in agricultural and veterinary schools and colleges, and it was recommended that a standardized system of credits in such colleges be adopted so that students can be transferred easily from one to another.

Agricultural credit was the subject of Resolutions 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11.

One of the most important resolutions was 4. It recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union take steps to establish liaison with the United

Nations Food and Agriculture Organization and to assure participation at the meetings of the Organization. It proposed also that the Executive Committee of the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture (a continuing body between conferences) explore with the Pan American Union the best way of conducting the future work of the inter-American conferences on agriculture, in order to help integrate the efforts of all international agencies interested in this field and to avoid duplication of effort, and thereby also to assure the maximum effectiveness of world-wide programs to promote increased efficiency of production, distribution, and utilization of food, fiber, and forest products, so that the peoples of the world may enjoy a higher standard of living.

The production, consumption, and transportation of agricultural commodities naturally received a great deal of attention from the Conference. Among the important resolutions were 13, which recommended that

the Pan American Union make special studies of such problems with pertinent recommendations; 16, which laid down basic principles to be observed in international commodity agreements; 19 and 20, which advocated the creation of special associations of producers for each line of production; 71, which hoped that all American countries would take steps to improve the marketing and distribution of food products; 75, which urged the adoption of quality standards; 76, which advocated the abolition of discriminations hindering the consumption of agricultural products; and 77, which discussed at length the encouragement and development of trunk communication systems, complementary highways, shipping enterprises, air transport of perishable agricultural products, the fixing of freight rates, and similar topics.

International action was proposed by several resolutions, besides those mentioned in other paragraphs. Among them were 32, on the periodic review of quarantine regulations for plant and animal products; 33, on continuance of the cooperation of United States agricultural agencies with the American republics; and 42, on exchange of technical information about livestock diseases.

The improvement of livestock was the subject of resolutions 35-41.

The conservation of natural resources received much attention from the delegates to the Conference. Forestry was the topic of several resolutions. Resolution 48 recommended to the Pan American Union the creation of a forestry section.

Soil conservation is, of course, an important part of any program for the protection of natural resources, and a number of resolutions were passed on this subject. One of the most important was 52, which provided for the organization of an Inter-American Society of Soil Science. This has already been invited by Argentina to meet at Buenos Aires within the next three years.

The proposed conference on the conservation of natural resources has already been mentioned. Resolution 50 made several suggestions on exchange and dissemination of information on water and soil conservation; 51 dealt with classification of soils and climates; 53 suggested the organization of the Inter-American Society of Agricultural Climatology; 54 recommended joint boards for control and development of rivers flowing in or between two countries; and 60 strongly urged that all American countries give instruction in agriculture in primary and secondary schools, and that the use and protection of natural resources be made an integral part of this instruction.

The Conference gave recognition to the fact that education is one of the fundamentals in agriculture. Several resolutions took up questions related to technical preparation of students. No. 59 has already been noted in connection with the Inter-American Institute of Agriculture. In 61 another important phase was the subject: technical and vocational guidance in the education of the rural dweller. The measures advocated included the training of rural teachers and elementary instruction of adult farmers. Fellowships in every American country for agricultural students from the other republics and the interchange of specialists and research students were urged by 65.

The study of national food habits and nutrition, the encouragement of a school-lunch program, and the improvement of the quality of the national food supply were recommended by 67, while 68 went thoroughly into problems connected with the production and consumption of milk and milk products.

An agreement on measures without racial, language or religious prejudice to orient postwar immigration was advocated by 79, while 80 took up an allied subject, regulation of prices of land for colonization; 81

discussed the organization of agricultural colonies, and 82 colonization and rural organization plans.

The topic of improvement of rural living conditions and of the standard of living was especially recommended to the next conference by 83, and 84 went at length into the question of farm labor legislation, including the possibility of a conference on the subject.

The subsequent resolutions of the Conference had to do with statistics. Methods for the improvement of the technical level of agricultural statistics were recommended by 89, and the uniformity of such statistics by 90; the creation of a permanent section on agricultural statistics in the Inter-American

Statistical Institute was advocated in 92 and is, in fact, now being carried out; systematic estimates of the most important crops as well as of livestock production were asked in 94; and an agricultural and livestock census every five years was sought, with a world census in 1950.

It was generally recognized that seldom had there assembled for a technical conference delegates and advisers of such repute, so ready to work together in the most unselfish cooperation. To this fact was due the great success of the Conference, which will undoubtedly influence the development of agriculture and stockraising throughout the Americas and thus contribute to a better life for all their citizens.

Women of the Americas

Notes from the Inter-American Commission of Women

Chile

A BILL granting suffrage to women on the same conditions that men enjoy has been presented to the Chilean Senate. It was sponsored by all the political parties, and on the day it was introduced speeches were made in its favor by two Radicals, a Communist, and two Liberals, including Señor Arturo Alessandri, President of the Senate, who is one of its most ardent champions.

The leader of the organized feminist movement working to obtain the vote is Señora Amanda Labarca, a distinguished educator and head of the University Council and of the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation.

According to the latest Chilean statistics, there are 438,879 women gainfully employed. They make up 40 percent of the

working population of the entire country.

It was reported in the BULLETIN of September 1945 that as a result of the Congress of Women held in October at Santiago a committee was appointed to advise housewives and organize them into Consumers' Leagues. It is a pleasure to add that, thanks to the efforts of the Chilean women, the official Subsistence and Price Commissariat has created ten posts for women inspectors who will serve in connection with the Consumers' Leagues. To prepare women for these positions, a special course in nutrition was given for teachers of domestic economy. These teachers are expected to teach the women who come to the Consumers' Leagues how to plan their meals in accordance with good principles of nutrition and their family budgets.

Colombia

Amendments to the Colombian Constitution promulgated by Congress in February 1945 granted women restricted citizenship, reserving the right of suffrage and the right of holding office exclusively for men. This restriction has aroused protests among Colombian women, and Señora María Currea de Aya, delegate of Colombia on the Inter-American Commission of Women, reports that a new bill amending the Constitution so as to give full citizenship rights to Colombian women has already been presented to the First Committee of the House of Representatives. Employing the new right granted by the Constitution to Colombian citizens of speaking before the Committees of the House of Representatives, the Executive Board of the Unión Femenina of Colombia appeared before the First Committee during the hearings on this bill. This Board expects also to appear before the corresponding Senate Committee.

The right of guardianship and the right of suffrage are the chief aspirations of Colombian women's organizations.

Costa Rica

Señora Angela Acuña de Chacón, Costa Rican delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women, has been appointed Director General of the Pan American Round Tables in Central America. Señora de Chacón is a distinguished intellectual well known for her work in social service.

Cuba

Cuban women are occupying more and more positions of responsibility, as attested by the following list:

Senator of the Democratic Party—Señorita Teresa Zayas.

Director of the Children's Protective Society—
Doctor Gilda Peraza.

Private Secretary to the President of the Republic—
Doctor Paula Coll.

Assistant Secretary of Education—Doctor Alicia Hernández de la Barca.

President of the National Corporation of Public Assistance—Señora María Dolores Machín de Upman.

Members of the Board of the National Corporation of Public Assistance:

Señora María Montalvo de Sotomayor and
Señora Elena Mederos de González.

Señora de González is the representative of Cuba on the Inter-American Commission of Women.

Peru

Señora Aurora Cáceres, delegate of Peru to the Inter-American Commission of Women, reports that on September 1, 1945 a constitutional amendment granting votes to women was presented to the Peruvian Senate by Doctors J. Encinas and Emilio Romero. It is as follows:

ARTICLE 84. Peruvians of both sexes over 21 years of age and married men or women over 18 years of age, are citizens of Peru.

ARTICLE 86. Citizens of either sex who know how to read and write have the right of suffrage.

ARTICLE 88, second part. Registration and voting are compulsory for men and women under 60 years of age and optional for those over this age.

As a result of the introduction of this amendment, it will be considered by the 1946 session of the Congress, which, it is to be hoped, will approve it, thus placing Peruvian women on the same basis as their sisters in many other countries.

A section for the inspection of women's work has been created in the Inspection Division of the General Labor Bureau.

The illiteracy campaign has been discussed with great interest by the Senate. Women are expected to benefit by its results.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures dealing with the war and its effects taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list is being compiled of laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, delay in receiving recent official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parentheses, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number.

The official gazettes of the Latin Ameri-

can countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

No items are given for the United States except under *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

This list will be concluded as of V-J Day, September 2, 1945.

PART XLV

ARGENTINA

251a. May 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 11,627, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Crefin, S.A., *Créditos y Finanzaciones*, to operate as a corporation, and providing that the Administrative Council take over its property. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1945.)

255. June 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,690, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm *Compañía General de Obras Públicas, S.A. (G.E. O. P. E.)* to operate as a corporation, and authorizing the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property to take over its property and use it in the best interests of the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

256. June 21, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,691, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm C. I. N. C. O., *Corporación de Ingenieros Constructores, S.A., Empresa Constructora*, to operate as a corporation, and authorizing the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property to take over its property and use it in the best interests of the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

257. June 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,670, authorizing the Y.P.F. (Government Petroleum Bureau), which controls electric production and consumption in the country, to allot as many kilowatt hours of electricity for industrial consumption in the months June-September 1945 as were used in the same period in 1944; calling on the Agricultural Production Regulation Board

Severances of Diplomatic Relations, Declarations of War, and Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Nations

	SEVERANCES OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS				DECLARATIONS OF WAR OR 8, 12STATE OF BELLIGERENCY			Signature of the Joint Declaration by the United Na- tions
	Germany and Italy	Japan	Bulgaria Hungary Rumania	1Vichy France	Germany and Italy	Japan	2Bulgaria 3Rumania 4Hungary	
Argentina.....	1-26-44	1-26-44	2-4-44	2-4-44	G-3-27-45	3-27-45
Bolivia.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	8 4-7-43	8 4-7-43	* 4-7-43
Brazil.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	(1)	8-22-42	6-6-45	2-6-43
Chile.....	1-20-43	1-20-43	5-18-43	5-18-43	8G-2-12-45	8 2-12-45 14 4-5-45	2-14-45
Colombia.....	12-19-41	12-8-41	11-26-42	G-11-27-43	1-17-44
Costa Rica.....	H-5-15-42 R-5-15-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Cuba.....	11-9-42	12-11-41	12-9-41	1-1-42
Dominican Republic.....	11-26-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Ecuador.....	1-29-42	1-29-42	9 12-7-41	2-14-45
El Salvador.....	11-13-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Guatemala.....	11-12-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Haiti.....	11-10-42	12-12-41	12-8-41	12-24-41	1-1-42
Honduras.....	11-13-42	12-13-41	12-8-41	1-1-42
Mexico.....	12-11-41	12-8-41	B-12-20-41 H-12-19-41 (10)	11-9-42	5-22-42	5-22-42	6-14-42
Nicaragua.....	-10-42	12-11-41	12-8-41	12-19-41	1-1-42
Panama.....	1-13-42	12-12-41	11 12-7-41	1-1-42
Paraguay.....	1-28-42	1-28-42	G-2-7-45	2-7-45	2-14-45
Peru.....	1-24-42	1-24-42	1-26-43	12 G-2-11-45	12 2-11-45	2-14-45
United States.....	(11)	12-11-41	12-8-41	6-5-42	1-1-42
Uruguay.....	1-25-42	1-25-42	5-12-43	2-22-45	2-22-45	2-24-45
Venezuela.....	12-31-41	12-31-41	11-26-42	8 2-14-45	8 2-14-45	2-20-45

¹ Evacuation of the German-controlled Vichy Government was reported to be complete by August 18, 1944. The French Committee of National Liberation, which on June 2, 1944, voted to change its name to the Provisional Government of the French Republic, headed by General de Gaulle, had already begun to assume the functions of government, having worked in cooperation with General Eisenhower, Allied Commander in Chief, through liaison officers following the start of the Allied invasion of France on D-Day, June 6, 1944. (*New York Times*, May 16, June 3, August 19, 1944.)

² Bulgaria ceased hostilities with the U.S.S.R. on September 9, 1944; severed relations with Germany on September 6, 1944 and with Hungary on September 26, 1944; and then ceased hostilities against all other United Nations. At Moscow on October 28, 1944, Bulgaria accepted the armistice terms presented by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. on behalf of all the United Nations at war with Bulgaria. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 29, 1944.)

³ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow September 12, 1944, Rumania, as of August 24, 1944, withdrew from the war against the United Nations, broke off relations with Germany and its satellites, and entered the war on the side of the Allied Powers against Germany and Hungary. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 17, 1944.)

⁴ Under the terms of an armistice signed at Moscow January 20, 1945, between the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States on the one hand and Hungary on the other, Hungary withdrew from the war against the U.S.S.R. and other United Nations, including Czechoslovakia, severed all relations with Germany, and declared war on Germany. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 21, 1945.)

⁵ Argentina severed relations with Germany and Japan only, since Italy had severed relations with Germany on October 13, 1943, and was thenceforth considered a co-belligerent by the United Nations.

⁶ The decree of April 7, 1943, by which a state of war was declared to exist between Bolivia and the Axis powers, and under which the Bolivian Government adhered to the United Nations Declaration, was sanctioned by the Bolivian Congress on November 26, 1943, and on December 4, 1943, a decree was promulgated formally declaring that Bolivia is at war with the Axis. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, December 11, 1943.)

⁷ Rumania and Hungary severed diplomatic relations with Brazil on March 6 and May 5, 1942, respectively. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

⁸ State of belligerency.

⁹ Ecuador declared war on Japan February 2, 1945, retroactive to December 7, 1941.

¹⁰ Mexico had no treaty of friendship or diplomatic relations with Rumania. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 20, 1943.)

¹¹ Panama declared war on December 10, 1941, retroactive to December 7.

¹² "State of effective belligerency."

¹³ The Vichy Government severed diplomatic relations with the United States on November 8, 1942. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, November 14, 1942.)

¹⁴ Declaration of war on Japan by the Chilean Senate.

to give priority to the provision of 515,000 tons of grain and 20,000 tons of oleaginous seeds for fuel to the power plants in the Federal Capital and Rosario and according rail freight priority A for the shipment of these and of 56,000 tons of charcoal; and making other provisions for supplying adequate electric power to the industries in those places during the period in question. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 5, 1945.)

258. June 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,898, repealing legislation which authorized the Axis-owned corporation Orenstein y Koppel, S.A., to establish branch offices in the country, and authorizing the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property to take over the corporation's property and use it in the best interests of the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

259. June 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,899, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Springer y Moller, S.A., to operate as a corporation, and authorizing the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property to take over its property and use it in the best interests of the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

260. June 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,900, repealing legislation which granted juridical personality to the German Chamber of Commerce and to the Germania Singing Club in Buenos Aires, and authorizing the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property to take over their property. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

261. June 25, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 13,901, repealing the legislation which granted juridical personality to the Axis-owned firm Sociedad Tubos Mannesmann, Ltda., and authorizing the Administrative Council to take over its property. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

262. June 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14,895, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Arbizu y Cervino, Sociedad Anónima Comercial y Industrial, to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

263. July 5, 1945. Resolution No. 17, Labor and Welfare Department, fixing the conditions under which certain industries may be authorized to operate on Saturday afternoons and Sundays in order to take advantage of available electric power. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 13, 1945.)

264. July 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14,891, rescinding the authorization granted to the

Axis-owned firm Afa-Tudor-Varta, S.A., Fábricas Reunidas de Acumuladores, to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

265. July 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14,892, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Compañía Argentina de Mandatos, S.A., to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

266. July 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14,893, rescinding the authorization granted the Axis-owned firm Carl Zeiss Argentina, S.A., Compañía Óptica, Fotografía y Mecánica de Precisión, to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

267. July 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14,894, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Perfumerías Tosca, S.A., to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 18, 1945.)

268. July 13, 1945. Resolution, Department of Industry and Commerce, placing the Axis-owned firm Edificio Germánico, Compañía Inmobiliaria, S.A., under the control of the Board for Surveillance and Final Disposal of Enemy Property. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1945.)

269. July 14, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 15,519, rescinding the authorization granted to Sesgo, Sociedad Anónima de Industrias Textiles, an Axis-owned firm, to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1945.)

270. July 14, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 15,520, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm G. E. C. O., Compañía Industrial y Comercial, S.A., to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1945.)

271. July 14, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 15,521, rescinding the authorization granted to the Axis-owned firm Comparex, Compañía Argentina Exportadora de Cereales, Sociedad Anónima Comercial, to operate as a corporation. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 27, 1945.)

272. July 14, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 15,860, raising the basic price for a specified grade of linseed and making other pertinent provisions. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 21, 1945.)

273. July 17, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 16,162, placing the German submarine U-530 and its crew at the disposal of the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, together with the Ministry of the Navy's report on its investigation of the case. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 30, 1945.)

274. July 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 15,743, providing that qualified flour millers may be authorized to make over the used jute bags which come into their hands; requiring the return to the millers of bags containing milling by-products; making numerous other provisions governing remaking, distribution, price, and specifications of jute bags for milling by-products; and amplifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 4,661 of August 6, 1943 (see Argentina 87*na*, BULLETIN, February 1944). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 25, 1945.)

CHILE

78*b*₀. March 13, 1944. Decree No. 678, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing prices for fresh milk in Santiago. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

134*a*. October 20, 1944. Decree No. 1,167, Ministry of Economy and Commerce, fixing profits on sales of imported Portland cement and making other provisions. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

135*a*. November 2, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,214, declaring certain articles and materials to be of prime necessity. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

137*a*. December 19, 1944. Presidential Decree No. 1,441, regulating the exportation of scrap iron. (Mentioned in *Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

138*a*. January 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 122, amplifying Decree No. 1,441 of December 19, 1944 (see 137*a* above) in regard to the exportation of scrap iron. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

143*a*. March 26, 1945. Decree No. 710, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum prices for domestic tires and tubes. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1 and June 15, 1945.)

143*b*. April 3, 1945. Decree No. 733, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requiring producers, distributors, and wholesale dealers in articles of prime necessity to file annual financial reports beginning with the year 1943 (see Chile 56*ba*, BULLETIN, November 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, May 23, 1945.)

144*a*. April 4, 1945. Decree No. 750, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for matches, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, April 14, 1945.)

147*a*. April 12, 1945. Decree No. 871, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, extending the effectiveness of Decree No. 678 of March 13, 1944 (see Chile 78*b*₀ above) regarding milk prices in Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

148*a*. April 17, 1945. Decree No. 893, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requiring holders of chick-peas, lentils, and corn to report their stocks as of April 30 to local price commissariats, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1945.)

148*b*. April 21, 1945. Decree No. 909, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amplifying Decree No. 258 of March 13, 1942 (see Chile 8, BULLETIN, July 1942 and January 1943) to prescribe procedures for distribution of tires. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1945.)

150. May 2, 1945. Decree No. 1,020, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requiring that domestic and imported cements be used in fixed proportions in specified parts of Chile, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

151. May 2, 1945. Decree No. 1,022, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing quotas for the distribution of Portland cement and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

152. May 3, 1945. Decree No. 1,064, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amending Decree No. 710 of March 26, 1945 (see Chile 143*a* above) to fix maximum prices for certain domestic tires made with rayon cord. (*Diario Oficial*, May 25, 1945.)

153. May 5, 1945. Decree No. 1,132, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amplifying and clarifying the provisions of Decree No. 1,167 of October 20, 1944 (see Chile 134*a* above) in regard to prices of imported Portland cement. (*Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1945.)

154. May 7, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 652, declaring newsprint, whether imported or domestic, to be an article of prime necessity and putting it under control. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

155. May 8, 1945. Decree No. 2,325*d*, Departmental Subsistence and Price Commissariat of Santiago, fixing maximum retail prices in Santiago for maté from Brazil in accordance with Decree No. 876, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, April 12, 1945 (see Chile 147, BULLETIN, October 1945). (*Diario Oficial*, May 11, 1945.)

156. May 11, 1945. Decree No. 1,219, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, amplifying and

clarifying the provisions of Decree No. 1,132 of May 5, 1945 (see Chile 153 above) in regard to maximum wholesale and retail prices of imported Portland cement. (*Diario Oficial*, May 17, 1945.)

157. May 16, 1945. Decree No. 1,234, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing a new maximum wholesale price for domestic edible oils, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1945.)

158. May 19, 1945. Decree No. 1,265, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for certain cotton fabrics in accordance with Decree No. 749 of March 24, 1944 (see Chile 79, BULLETIN, August and September 1944). (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1945.)

159. May 29, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 750, amending Decree No. 1,214 of November 2, 1944 (see Chile 135a above) to remove certain articles and materials from the list of essential supplies, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 19, 1945.)

160. May 29, 1945. Resolution No. 5, Petroleum Supply Committee, amending Resolution No. 26 of August 31, 1944 (see Chile 125, BULLETIN, July 1945) in regard to the validity of alcohol coupons. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1945.)

161. June 1, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 784, amending Decree No. 856 of July 1, 1944 (see Chile 82, BULLETIN, January 1945) in regard to the distribution and sale of penicillin. (*Diario Oficial*, June 16, 1945.)

162. June 2, 1945. Decree No. 1,442, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum wholesale and retail prices for eggs in Santiago, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 12 and June 15, 1945.)

163. June 2, 1945. Resolution No. 19, Public Transit and Transportation Board, prohibiting, because of the gasoline shortage, movement of private automobiles after 11 p.m. and on Sundays and holidays in specified cities, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 6, 1945.)

164. June 4, 1945. Decree No. 1,482, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, requiring producers, distributors, and wholesale dealers in articles of prime necessity to file within 45 days a declaration of stocks on hand, such declarations to be revised monthly beginning August 1945; also enumerating the articles affected, and making other provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, June 14, 1945.)

165. June 6, 1945. Decree No. 2,672d, Departmental Subsistence and Price Commissariat of Santiago, fixing a new maximum retail price for edible oils in Santiago. (*Diario Oficial*, June 7, 1945.)

COLOMBIA

168. August 18, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2,010, abolishing the National Price Control Office and assigning to the Department of Commerce and Industries in the Ministry of National Economy authority to adopt any measures necessary to control speculation in articles of prime necessity, in accordance with Law No. 7 of March 2, 1943 (see Colombia 59a, BULLETIN, August 1943). (*Diario Oficial*, August 24, 1945.)

COSTA RICA

193a. July 12, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 14, granting to dutiable imports 30 days of free storage in customs when necessary, increasing the charge for goods left after the period of free storage has expired, and making other provisions. (*La Gaceta*, July 28, 1945.)

195. July 26, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 7, suspending certain constitutional guarantees for a period of 60 days. (*La Gaceta*, July 29, 1945.)

196. August 6, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 142, approving the Charter of the United Nations (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212, BULLETIN, August 1945) and authorizing the President to fulfill the obligations involved. (*La Gaceta*, August 9, 1945.)

197. August 18, 1945. Legislative Resolution No. 13, repealing Legislative Resolution No. 7 of July 26, 1945 (see 195 above), which suspended certain constitutional guarantees for a period of 60 days. (*La Gaceta*, August 21, 1945.)

CUBA

793a. June 23, 1945. Decree, Minister of the Treasury, regulating procedures by which industrialists may give bond to guarantee their payment of the consumption tax on sugar instead of depositing the sugar itself as security for the tax payment, in accordance with Decree No. 1864 of July 19, 1940, as amended by Decree No. 695 of March 6, 1945 (see Cuba 742a, BULLETIN, November 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 4, 1945, p. 15458.)

802a. July 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1898, authorizing the duty-free importation of 300,000 quintals (approximately 15,150 tons) of

corn. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, July 18, 1945, p. 1.)

807. July 30, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 2122, suspending the collection of municipal taxes levied on local food industries since the beginning of the war, insofar as any excess over May 1, 1943, tax levels is concerned. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 11, 1945, p. 15973.)

808. July 30, 1945. Resolution No. 378, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing a quota of domestic tires and tubes to meet pending requests. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 4, 1945, p. 15461.)

809. July 31, 1945. Resolution, Import and Export Agency, regulating distillery quotas of alcohol for export, beverages, fuel, or other domestic use. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 3, 1945, p. 15368.)

810. July 31, 1945. Resolution No. 379, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, prescribing new regulations concerning the procurement of gasoline by a specified omnibus company in Habana (see Cuba 526, BULLETIN, May 1944). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 6, 1945, p. 15492.)

811. July 31, 1945. Resolution No. 380, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, establishing control over the purchase of corn imported in accordance with Decree No. 1898 of July 11, 1945 (see 802a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 6, 1945, p. 15493.)

812. August 10, 1945. Resolution No. 382, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, regulating the withdrawal from customs of imported rice. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 17, 1945, p. 16387.)

813. August 11, 1945. Resolution No. 384, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring monthly declarations of motor vehicles, tires, tubes, and other pertinent data to be made by public motor carrier enterprises, both freight and passenger. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1945, p. 16898.)

814. August 11, 1945. Resolution No. 385, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, fixing tire and tube distribution quotas for the third quarter of 1945. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1945, p. 16904.)

815. August 22, 1945. Resolution No. 239, Minister of Commerce, providing for local consumption of sugar not exported in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 3437 of November 24, 1942 (see Cuba 291, BULLETIN, March 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 25, 1945, p. 16999.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

176. July 26, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2853, authorizing the Under Secretary of Labor and National Economy to carry on the functions conferred upon the Office for the Control of Rents and Dispossession of Tenants. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 28, 1945.)

177. July 27, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2859, abolishing the control over wheat flour established by Decree No. 57 of June 3, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 38, BULLETIN, September 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 1, 1945.)

178. August 6, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2871, broadening the powers of the Penicillin Control Commission established by Decree No. 2002 of June 23, 1944 (see Dominican Republic 134c, BULLETIN, January 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 8, 1945.)

179. August 11, 1945. Congressional Resolution No. 962, approving the Charter of the United Nations and the annexed Statute of the International Court of Justice (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212 and 213, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1945.)

180. August 11, 1945. Congressional Resolution No. 963, approving the Interim Arrangements concluded by the Governments represented at the United Nations Conference on International Organization (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 214, BULLETIN, September 1945). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1945.)

181. August 15, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2893, declaring August 17 and 18, 1945, days of national rejoicing because of the Japanese surrender. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 18, 1945.)

182. August 25, 1945. Executive Decree No. 2914, abolishing the postal and telecommunications censorship established by previous legislation (see Dominican Republic 9 and 87, BULLETIN, April 1942 and August 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1945.)

EL SALVADOR

115. July 12, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 135, reducing to 5 dollars the import duty of 35 per 100 kilograms gross weight of beef tallow and making the importation of Central American tallow duty free, both provisions to be in effect until

September 20, 1945; authorizing the Executive Power to control prices of tallow and soap; and making other provisions occasioned by the grave shortage of tallow for the national soap industry. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1945.)

116. July 17, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 142, amplifying the provisions of Legislative Decree No. 91 of May 24, 1945 (see El Salvador 112, BULLETIN, September 1945) and authorizing the Executive Power, through the Ministry of Economy, to place orders for all articles of prime necessity, such as corn, beans, sugar, etc., without abiding by any of the requirements of the Procurement Law; exempting all articles of prime necessity ordered by the Executive Power as provided in Legislative Decree No. 91 and the present decree from specified surcharges, including the one levied by Legislative Decree No. 112 of December 21, 1942 (see El Salvador 50, BULLETIN, May 1943); and making other pertinent provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, July 20, 1945.)

117. July 18, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 138, extending for another year, the effectiveness of Legislative Decree No. 80 of June 30, 1944 (see El Salvador 87*b*, BULLETIN, January 1945), which suspended all consular duties and taxes on the importation of cotton thread. (*Diario Oficial*, July 26, 1945.)

118. July 19, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 146, amending the present National Budget and voting a special appropriation for the acquisition and distribution by the Government of foodstuffs and other articles of prime necessity, to be sold at prices within the reach of the working classes. (*Diario Oficial*, July 19, 1945.)

119. August 13, 1945. Executive Decree providing that all lots of sugar of more than 50 quintals (about 5,070 pounds) shall be attached and placed under the control of the General Revenue Office and the Sugar Industry Defense Committee; requiring declarations within 3 days of all stocks of sugar exceeding that limit; and providing that the above-named agencies shall grant the proper sales permits for the sugar in their custody. (*Diario Oficial*, August 14, 1945.)

120. August 16, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 163, declaring a national holiday on August 17 and 18 in celebration of victory and peace, and making other appropriate provisions. (*Diario Oficial*, August 16, 1945.)

GUATEMALA

144. September 4, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 149, restricting land ownership within ten miles of the coast line or of national frontiers to Guatemalan government authorities and Guatemalan citizens as defined in the Constitution, and making other provisions. (*Diario de Centro América*, September 13, 1945.)

145. September 10, 1945. Legislative Decree No. 152, amending Decree No. 114 of May 22, 1945 (see Guatemala 142, BULLETIN, September 1945) to extend the time limit for filing papers in cases of expropriation of property of persons named in the Proclaimed Lists. (*Diario de Centro América*, September 12, 1945.)

HONDURAS

45*a*. January 17, 1945. Executive Order No. 1163, recognizing the juridical personality of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. (*La Gaceta*, August 25, 1945.)

46. (Correction) February 1, 1945.

51. August 15, 1945. Executive Decree No. 76, declaring August 14 Final Victory Day; providing that the flag be displayed on public buildings August 15, 16, and 17 and that public employees be given a holiday on those days; and making other provisions for the celebration of the final victory of the United Nations. (*La Gaceta*, August 23, 1945.)

52. September 2, 1945. Executive Decree No. 77, declaring September 2 a national holiday in celebration of the signing of the Japanese surrender. (*La Gaceta*, September 6, 1945.)

53. September 8, 1945. Executive Decree No. 78, repealing, in view of the end of the war, Presidential Decree No. 62 of June 8, 1943 (see Honduras 35, BULLETIN, October 1943), which imposed press and mail censorship. (*La Gaceta*, September 11, 1945.)

MEXICO

314*a*. August 14, 1945. Decree listing products that may be imported only upon authorization of the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit (tin; iron and steel bars, sheets, pipe, etc.; railroad materials and locomotive parts; rubber manufac-

tures; rayon fiber). (*Diario Oficial*, September 11, 1945.)

315a. August 22, 1945. Order, Secretary of National Economy, declaring the immediate incorporation into the national mineral reserves of all Mexican deposits of uranium, thorium, actinium, and other radioactive elements, as well as deposits of all substances from which such elements may be obtained. (*Diario Oficial*, September 17, 1945.)

319. September 11, 1945. Presidential Resolution declaring the cessation of hostilities as of September 1, 1945. (*Diario Oficial*, September 14, 1945.)

320. September 25, 1945. Decree repealing the decree of August 14, 1945 (see 314a above), in view of the fact that certain foreign countries abolished export quotas of the materials concerned. (*Diario Oficial*, September 29, 1945.)

PANAMA

128. July 13, 1945. Decree No. 1231, prescribing measures concerning leases and dispossession; establishing Rent Boards in the cities of Panama and Colón; prescribing their duties and functions; and continuing in effect the rent control provisions of Decree-Law No. 43 of December 1, 1942, insofar as they do not conflict with the present decree (see Panama 51, BULLETIN, April 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 4, 1945.)

129. July 16, 1945. Resolution No. 26, Second National Constituent Assembly, approving, with some amendments, Decree No. 1231 of July 13, 1945 (see 128 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 4, 1945.)

130. August 8, 1945. Decree No. 65, Office of Imports, Price and Supply Control, fixing wholesale and retail prices for certain matches throughout the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 11, 1945.)

131. August 11, 1945. Decree No. 66, Office of Imports, Price and Supply Control, fixing maximum prices for onions by the pound and 50-pound sack in David. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 17, 1945.)

132. August 14, 1945. Decree No. 1263, declaring August 15, 1945, to be a national holiday in celebration of the Japanese surrender. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 23, 1945.)

133. August 22, 1945. Decree No. 1266, creating a commission to study and determine the amount of claims which Panamanian citizens may have to

make against the Axis countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 27, 1945.)

134. August 23, 1945. Decree No. 1271, repealing Decrees No. 50 of March 19, 1941 and No. 267 of December 15, 1941, which, for purposes of continental security, prohibited the sending of coded messages and established postal and telecommunications censorship. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 28, 1945.)

135. August 25, 1945. Decree No. 1274, repealing Decree No. 356 of April 1, 1942, which pertained to censorship. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 4, 1945.)

PARAGUAY

65. Presidential Decree No. 6225. (Mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, July 5, 1945.)

95. June 27, 1945. Decree-Law No. 9328, establishing compulsory registration of all German and Japanese residents and control over their transit within and their exit from the country; authorizing, in case it seems advisable, the extension of these provisions to nationals of other countries; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 27, 1945.)

96. July 2, 1945. Decree-Law No. 9394, approving the report of the special committee named by Presidential Decree No. 6225 of November 30, 1944, to cooperate with UNRRA in determining Paraguay's contribution to UNRRA (see Paraguay 65, BULLETIN, April 1945); authorizing the Ministry of the Treasury to carry out the plan; fixing Paraguay's contribution; and making other pertinent provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 5, 1945.)

URUGUAY

280. August 6, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 1265/943, fixing a new price for gas oil. (*Diario Oficial*, August 9, 1945.)

281. August 10, 1945. Presidential Decree No. 794/943, repealing the decree of July 7, 1945, which, because of the country's critical forage situation resulting from the drought, prohibited exportation of oil seed cakes. This decree was repealed, after domestic requirements were assured by exporters and industrialists, in order to enable exporters to meet commitments with foreign governments needing the product because of war shortages. (*Diario Oficial*, August 21, 1945.)

282. August 11, 1945. Presidential Decree No.

2125/945, fixing maximum prices for raw sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, August 17, 1945.)

VENEZUELA

211a. May 3, 1945. Resolution No. 33, National Supply Commission, fixing ceiling prices for corn in specified localities and repealing the ceiling price for shelled corn fixed by Resolution No. 64 of January 20, 1943 (see Venezuela 87a, BULLETIN, July 1943). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 3, 1945.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

232. September 21, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of Brazil's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations and the annexed Statute of the International Court of Justice (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 212 and 213, BULLETIN, August and September 1945). (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 30, 1945.)

233. September 24, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of Argentina's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations and the annexed Statute of the International Court

of Justice. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 30, 1945.)

234. September 26, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of El Salvador's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations and the annexed Statute of the International Court of Justice. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, September 30, 1945.)

235. September 27, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of Haiti's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 21, 1945.)

236. October 11, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of Chile's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 14, 1945.)

237. October 12, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of Paraguay's ratification of the Charter of the United Nations. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 14, 1945.)

238. October 15, 1945. Deposit with the United States Department of State of the ratification by Cuba of the Charter of the United Nations. (*The Department of State Bulletin*, October 21, 1945.)

Pan American News

Lend-Lease to Latin America

THE cumulative total from the beginning of Lend-Lease in March 1941, to July 1, 1945, was \$262,762,000 for the eighteen American republics receiving it.

Brazil received by far the most, with Chile, Mexico and Peru following.

In all cases supplies were limited to exclusively military goods or material for military use.

The individual totals are as follows:

Mexico	\$ 20,313,000
Guatemala	1,089,000

El Salvador	851,000
Honduras	313,000
Nicaragua	628,000
Costa Rica	139,000
Cuba	4,385,000
Haiti	713,000
Dominican Republic	1,140,000
Colombia	5,285,000
Venezuela	2,715,000
Ecuador	4,847,000
Peru	13,996,000
Bolivia	4,392,000
Chile	20,663,000
Brazil	154,286,000
Paraguay	1,387,000
Uruguay	5,618,000

Message of the President of Chile

President Juan Antonio Ríos of Chile appeared before the newly elected Congress on the afternoon of May 21, 1945, to give account of the progress of the nation in the third year of his presidency. It was a year broken by a period of 45 days, beginning October 12, 1944, during which President Ríos was too ill to act; at that time his duties were assumed in constitutional form by the Minister of the Interior, Señor Alfonso Quintana Burgos, who remained at the head of the government until President Ríos' recovery late in November.

Close cooperation with the other American republics continued to be the cornerstone of Chile's foreign policy. With this came closer ties with the United Nations, as evidenced in the declaration of a state of belligerency dated February 12, 1945. In May 1944 Chile and Canada agreed to raise to the rank of embassy the legations which each had accredited to the other; and later in the year Chile accorded recognition to new governments in Ecuador and in Bolivia. On December 11, 1944 Chile renewed diplomatic and consular relations with the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Fourteen special and local elections were held during the year, in addition to the general elections of March 4, 1945 by which the new Congress was selected. All took place in due form and in an orderly manner.

Many important economic changes grew out of the activities of the Government Development Corporation. A notable advance in the electrification plan was marked by the opening in November 1944 of the Pilmaiquén power plant, bringing rural electrification to the industrial and agricultural center of southern Chile; other stations at Abanico and Sauzal were nearly completed. Progress was made in the promotion of steel industries in Concepción and Valdivia. Coal was pro-

duced in larger quantities than ever before, and copper production increased enough to allow the exportation of 8,000 tons of copper manufactures.

Fisheries were stimulated at various points on Chile's long coast line, and construction was begun on several of the cold storage plants required for further growth of the industry. Chilean factories made enough farm machinery to contribute substantially toward the Development Corporation's aims for mechanized agriculture. Price control afforded the consumer some measure of protection against a menacing rise in prices. Three of the most pressing commodity shortages were somewhat relieved—cement by increased national production, and meat and sugar by imports from Argentina and Cuba respectively. Expanding sugar-beer acreage offered hope of still further relief.

The financial year was one of vigorous struggle against wartime financial difficulties, sharpened by unavoidable increases in some low government salaries. By the end of 1944 the national deficit amounted to 383 million pesos¹, slightly more than the corresponding figure for December 1943, but holding most of the gains which were made after the 705 million mark earlier in 1943 led to strenuous retrenchment measures. The short-term debt was cut down to little more than 17 million dollars.

Taxes of necessity played a great part in this financial defense. President Ríos reported with pride that taxpayers in the lower brackets had loyally shouldered their responsibilities; in fact, the lowest group of income tax payers, those with incomes of from 25 to 50 thousand pesos, had returned their declarations in numbers beyond all estimates. In the high brackets, however, tax evasion continued to present a trying prob-

¹ On April 30, 1945, the exchange value of the Chilean peso was \$0.031.

lem, in spite of the rich profits evidenced by high interest rates, increased capitalization of corporations, and high quotations on government and mortgage bonds.

Primary school attendance rose to an average of 452,826, with a teaching body of 14,269. Supplementing the work of these state-directed schools were primary schools under private direction but receiving state subsidies, with an average attendance of 93,185; also 23 school homes for underprivileged children, with an enrollment of 1,185. Thirty-five new or modernized schoolhouses were opened.

Rural schools received special attention. Half the primary school budget was devoted to them; and in one of the departments a rural normal school and various new types of experimental rural schools were opened, in an effort to improve the quality as well as the quantity of schooling provided in country districts. Efforts against adult illiteracy included not only an increase in night schools but also the formation of a nation-wide civic body undertaking to reduce illiteracy by giving personal lessons to individuals.

Secondary schools showed an enrollment of about 55,000. The government had recently appointed a committee of secondary school teachers to work out a plan for the reorganization of secondary education, with greater emphasis upon character training and upon vocational preparation. Trade schools also showed increasing enrollment.

At the University of Chile two schools were being reorganized, the Faculty of Philosophy and Education and the Faculty of Physical Sciences and Mathematics.

The year saw several important reforms in the penal and civil codes. In addition to these legislative advances, 85 local institutes were engaged in efforts for the employment and rehabilitation of ex-convicts, workshops for the employment of prisoners were much enlarged, and a newly established training

school was preparing prison employees for wiser handling of their charges.

Traffic over national air lines continued to increase, reaching a passenger total of 18,724, more than twice that of 1941, and making possible a reduction in cargo rates. No accident was recorded in 1944. State owned railroads showed a net profit for 1944 of 4,318,600 pesos, in spite of losses amounting to 31 million pesos incurred by two northern branches.

A six-year public works program was under way, to give priority to highway, railroad, water, and harbor projects. These enterprises were to be financed by the bar copper profits tax of January 1942, supplemented by budget appropriations and by special government loans. During the year covered by the report, additions to the country's irrigated lands amounted to nearly 140,000 acres.

Road building programs gave special attention to lateral roads, in order to promote the movement of farm crops. Production of rice, barley, and oats was increased during the year, and wheat growing was so successfully stimulated that the country's wheat needs could be met without imports. Cattle improved in quality as well as in quantity.

Agricultural prospects in general received a new impetus from the Agrarian Plan adopted by the cabinet in January 1945 and made law in May. This plan provides for a rearrangement of crops among different parts of the country, with stimulation of intensive production and of production and distribution cooperatives; it seeks to coordinate all government agricultural services under the Ministry of Agriculture.

Good progress was made during the year in the settling of colonists, especially in the unoccupied regions of the south. Clearing of land titles contributed to this progress; in some cases the titles were individually held, in others lands were assigned to groups

of Indians who clung to their system of community holdings. Plans were under way for a series of mixed Chilean and European colonies which would help provide for some of the displaced persons left in the wake of war.

A few of labor's difficulties were met by the fixing of living wage standards in 225 categories for various parts of the country, and by expansion of housing activities; low-cost housing was provided during the year for some 10,000 persons, and accommodations for 16,000 more were under way. Notaries, judicial archivists, and registrars of real estate, commerce, and mines were added to social security coverage. The continued rise in the cost of living was attacked not only by measures aimed at increased production but also by projected legislation for stabilization of prices, wages, and services. New hospitals and drainage systems were constructed with the help of the Inter-American Cooperative Public Health Service.

President Ríos ended his message by reaffirming his administration's dedication to the maintenance of democratic government and of individual rights, and to the protection of the country's productive forces, including its human workers.—C. C. C.

Fourth Pan American Coffee Conference

During the first half of September 1945 representatives of the fourteen Latin American coffee-producing countries (Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, and Venezuela) met in the Fourth Pan American Coffee Conference, at Mexico City, to discuss the plight of the coffee producers of Latin America.

Coffee is one of the main sources, and in some cases the main source, of national in-

come for these countries. In El Salvador, for example, practically 87 percent of the country's total income is derived solely from coffee. In Colombia, 61.5 percent comes from coffee. Even Brazil, which expanded greatly both industrially and agriculturally during the war, obtains 45 percent of national income from coffee. As a wartime emergency measure, the OPA of the United States froze the import price of coffee at the level prevailing on December 7, 1941, and this price is still in effect. This frozen price, the coffee representatives stated at the Mexico City conference, is 5 percent below the average price during the thirty years from 1911 to 1940, and today, in view of the rise in production costs (increased agricultural and industrial wages, increased local transportation costs, and higher prices for machinery and other articles which coffee producers must import) and all the other abnormalities resulting from the war, it is considered throughout the countries concerned as unfair and uneconomic and the coffee industry is reported to be practically at the point of collapse.

Therefore, Resolution No. 1 of the Coffee Conference, approved in plenary session on September 11, 1945, asked the Government of the United States, now that the war has ended, to abolish or at least to modify the emergency price control in such manner that a proper balance may be established between production and consumption.

The economic aspects of the problem are manifold. As pointed out in Resolution No. 1 of the Conference, not only does the coffee industry give employment to large proportions of the rural populations of the producing countries, but also the exportation of the product plays a highly significant role in international trade. A more adequate price would enable those nations to buy more manufactured goods in the United States.

[It must be added that on November 17, 1945 the Stabilization Director of the United States announced that as an emergency measure importers would be permitted to pay three cents a pound additional for green coffee from November 19, 1945, to March 31, 1946, but that the increase, estimated to cost \$24,000,000, would be absorbed by a Government subsidy to be paid by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation on a maximum of 6,000,000 bags, of 132 pounds each.]

The United States coffee import price situation was the foremost problem of the Coffee Conference. The deliberations, however, were not confined entirely to that topic. A resolution was adopted approving the cooperative promotion of coffee sales in European markets, particularly in view of the fact that at present European nations are buying coffee at prices above the United States ceiling. It was further recommended that the Pan American Coffee Bureau of New York immediately send a trade mission to Europe; that a branch office of the Bureau be established in Europe to promote trade; and that in any coffee trade agreements entered into with European countries having coffee-producing colonies, a tariff treatment equal to that accorded by the country to the colony be required by the Latin American nations involved.

Other resolutions concerned the establishment of Coffee Defense Institutes in the producing countries where such agencies do not already exist; the establishment of a Technical Section in the Pan American Coffee Bureau to undertake technical studies on coffee cultivation; the application of coffee production and trade taxes in the various countries to the development of the industry; and the interchange of reports on coffee legislation among the producing countries. It was also recommended that the Pan American Coffee Bureau take steps

aimed at securing adjustments of freight rates and that the countries themselves adopt a c.i.f. price in place of the f.o.b. system.

Another item of interest to Latin American coffee producers was the adoption at a meeting of the Inter-American Coffee Board in Washington on June 13, 1945, of a resolution recommending the extension for one year beginning October 1, 1945, of the Inter-American Coffee Agreement. The resolution contained the stipulation, however, that the quota provisions of the agreement be suspended, except in cases of emergency, when they could be reestablished through a 95 percent vote of the Board. It was further recommended that the Board undertake during the year a thorough study of the world coffee situation and formulate, for consideration by the Governments signatory to the agreement and by any others that might be interested in participating in a revised agreement, recommendations on the most feasible kind of international cooperation for the development of sound and prosperous trade conditions, equitable for both producers and consumers.

The Inter-American Coffee Agreement was signed in Washington on November 28, 1940, and by a Protocol signed in Washington on April 15, 1941, it was provided that the Agreement would continue in force to October 1, 1943. By unanimous consent the signatory Governments twice extended the agreement for one-year periods, and a Protocol embodying the recommendations of the Inter-American Coffee Board noted above was signed in October 1945 by all the countries concerned, subject, however, for final effectiveness, to ratification by all.

The New Constitution of Ecuador

Ecuador's 1945 Constitution, summarized in the October 1945 number of the BULLETIN insofar as principal changes from

the 1906-07 Constitution, which it replaced, were concerned, explicitly gives citizenship rights, and therefore suffrage, to women. In this respect, as in a number of other forward-looking provisions, it followed the 1929 Constitution, which was abrogated after being in effect ten years.

Since 1921, when the first Constitution was adopted for the new Republic of Gran Colombia (composed of the States of Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela), Ecuador has lived under sixteen different constitutions. On September 11, 1830, Ecuador's first constitution as an autonomous republic was adopted, and since then there have been 13 others. In 1938 still another basic law of the land was drafted, but it was not promulgated, and in February 1939, by legislative decree, the 1929 Constitution was abrogated and that of 1906-07 put into effect again.

Citizenship and voting qualifications were changed again and again in these many constitutions. Rodrigo Jácome Moscoso, in his book *Derecho Constitucional Ecuatoriano*, published by the Central University at Quito in 1931, traced these changes through the years in some detail. At first both citizenship and suffrage were very much restricted by various property ownership and income requirements and in the 1869 Constitution, citizenship was restricted to Catholics. But the Constitution of 1878, the product of more liberal ideas, removed the religious restrictions. At that time, too, women's rights first entered the picture. Marietta Veintimilla, sister of the then President Veintimilla and a dynamic figure in the life of her time, suggested that women as well as men were endowed with citizenship rights under the Constitution. Reactionary thought, however, was unwilling to accept such an idea, and the 1883 Constitution expressly closed the doors of political activity to women by restricting citizenship to "male Ecuadoreans who know how to read and

write, who are twenty-one years old or who are or have been married." The 1897 Constitution eliminated the sex distinction, but women did not attempt to exercise their citizenship rights because prevailing opinion held that the use of such rights lay within man's province alone.

The 1906-07 Constitution limited its definition of citizenship to these words: "Citizens must be twenty-one years old and know how to read and write." Under this document, which remained in effect until 1929, changes began to filter into Ecuadorean national life. Education for women was broadened and the rise of women in intellectual and professional life led to the appearance of some women at the polls. This was regarded with astonishment and doubt, and the Council of State was appealed to regarding women's status. The Council rendered a favorable opinion and thus, without demonstration, Ecuadorean women were definitely conceded political status equal to men's.

The 1929 Constitution expressly gave women citizenship by stating that "all Ecuadoreans, men and women, over twenty-one, who know how to read and write, are citizens." In this document, as well as the preceding ones, suffrage was designated as a function of citizens. In the first elections following the 1929 Constitution, many women voted. According to Señor Jácome Moscoso, some women were elected to municipal offices and others even received votes for the office of representative in Congress.

As has been said, the 1929 Constitution remained in effect until 1939, when the 1906-07 Constitution was revived. The 1945 Constitution reverted in part to the abolished 1929 document by qualifying as citizens literate men and women, although the age has been lowered to eighteen. Article 20, referring to the electorate, states that to be an elector the enjoyment of citi-

zenship rights and the fulfillment of other requirements as determined by law are required. Since women are specifically given the rights of citizenship, it follows that the right of suffrage also applies to them.

Certain other provisions of the 1929 Constitution were also embodied in the 1945 document. One of these was the "functional" representation in Congress. The legislature under the 1929 Constitution was bicameral and the Senate, in addition to elected members, had fifteen "functional" members. The 1945 instrument provides for a unicameral legislature and for twenty-five "functional" members in addition to regularly elected representatives.

Both the 1929 and 1945 Constitutions prohibited borrowing for ordinary administrative expenses of government, and both provided for the allocation of at least 20 percent of regular federal income to public education.

With regard to fundamental individual guarantees, the 1929 Constitution made broad provisions which the 1945 document incorporated and expanded, particularly with respect to labor and social welfare. Referring to working hours and minimum wages, the 1929 Constitution simply stated that "the law shall fix maximum daily working hours and the manner of determining minimum wages in relation, especially, to the cost of living and conditions and needs of various regions of the country." The 1945 Constitution stated that "all workers shall enjoy a minimum wage sufficient to cover personal and family needs" and it definitely established the 8-hour day and 44-hour week. Both documents provided that minimum wages should not be subject to garnishment, although the 1945 Constitution added the words "except for payment of board." Both constitutions provided for paid weekly days of rest, paid legal holidays, and paid annual vacations for workers.

In both 1929 and 1945 the Constitution was affirmed to be the supreme law of the land and Congress was given sole authority to decide on the constitutionality of a decree or law.—D. M. T.

New United States price for silver

Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia, large silver producers, will benefit by the Office of Price Administration's increase in the price of foreign silver from 45 cents to 71.11 cents a fine ounce. The increase, made in September 1945, places foreign silver on a parity with that mined in the United States.

Mexico, the world's largest silver producer, will be the major beneficiary. Effects of the change began to be felt there almost immediately. The Secretary of the Treasury issued a statement noting the fact that the increase would undoubtedly have highly beneficial effects not only on mining but on Mexican economy in general. There will be a considerable increase, he said, in one of the main factors of the Mexican balance of payments, at precisely the time when Mexico will need exchange to cover import requirements. In other words, the purchasing power of the nation will be very appreciably increased. He also stated that the effect of the increase on the domestic monetary system will be different from that of 1935 when a similar event took place. At that time the exchange of silver coin was made obligatory, but this time the Government does not contemplate any such requirement; it expects to give the benefit of the increase to the people. The major part of the approximately 530 million silver pesos in circulation is in the hands of the general public, whose savings are at the highest level ever recorded in the country.

On October 1, 1945, the banks of Mexico began to pay 1.20 pesos in bills and change for silver pesos.

Furthermore, a few days after the price increase, the Bank of Mexico was given a virtual monopoly in buying and selling all but industrially worked silver. The Government also abolished a silver production tax of 10.92 pesos a kilogram (2.2 pounds), levied in August 1942, although other production and export taxes remain in effect; and it also repealed what amounted to a subsidy for tax reduction of 3.18 pesos a kilogram, authorized in December 1944.

Argentine-Bolivian agreement on communications and oil

Argentina, which before the war depended on imports for almost half of its petroleum supply, has felt increasingly the pinch of wartime shortages in fuel oil for its industries (see *The Americas and the War*, among other items Argentina 98a, 216, 220, and Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 211, BULLETIN, August 1945, and Argentina 200a, BULLETIN, September 1945). Bolivia has rich oil deposits, some of them lying close to the Argentine border, but has always been handicapped in developing them by the lack of transportation facilities (see *Bolivian Oil Development*, BULLETIN, August 1945).

On June 2, 1945, the then Argentine Foreign Minister, César Ameghino, and the Bolivian Ambassador to Buenos Aires, José Tamayo, signed for their respective governments an agreement by which Argentina will finance the development of rail and road communications and oil fields in Bolivia and will receive as part of its payment a percentage of Bolivia's oil production.

This agreement climaxes a series of Argentine-Bolivian treaties, agreements, and complementary notes on rail and highway connections of which the first was signed in September 1937. In fulfillment of that treaty, the two governments began to study

the possibilities of constructing a railroad from Yacuiba, on the Argentine-Bolivian border, to Santa Cruz de la Sierra, at the northern end of Bolivia's oil-producing region, a city strategically situated to become an oil-refining center, railway junction, and market center for the rice, coffee, cacao, sugar cane, tobacco, and cotton crops of the adjacent territories.

The 1941 Treaty on Railway Connections determined the construction of the first fifth of the Yacuiba-Santa Cruz Line, the 64-mile stretch from the Argentine border to Villa Montes, and preliminary surveys for the job were carried out. But the question of whether this section of railroad was to stand alone or whether materials and services should be procured for operations on a much larger scale delayed the actual construction work.

The Tamayo-Ameghino Agreement now makes possible the execution of the full-scale project. In the first place, the Argentine Government agrees to advance the Bolivian Government the necessary funds for the construction of the railroad between Villa Montes and Santa Cruz, up to the sum of 40 million Argentine pesos. Both governments agree to do everything possible so that the line may be ready for use within four years.

Of the 40 million-peso loan mentioned above, up to 500,000 pesos will be allowed for a study by the Mixed Railroad Commission of the long-projected branch line to Sucre, which still has no rail communications with eastern Bolivia. Since a stretch of some 49 miles between Sucre and Tarabuco is already under construction, the route discussed in this agreement would connect Tarabuco and Boyuibe (a station on the Yacuiba-Santa Cruz line.) It would pass through Camiri, the most important oil field thus far developed in Bolivia, creating production outlets to the east and to the west. The

Commission is charged with conducting a technical examination of the survey already made in Bolivia for the construction of this line and with presenting a report to the two governments on the technical and financial aspects of the project.

The two countries further agree to extend to Potosí the Orán-Tarija highway, which was provided for in the Highway Connections Agreement of 1942.

In the Railway Connections Agreement of 1941, Argentina promised Bolivia a loan of 2 million pesos for increasing the production of the oil wells at Sanandita. It now agrees to increase that loan to 15 million pesos, which is to be applied entirely to the payment of YPFB (Bolivian Government Petroleum Bureau) purchases and services tending towards the more systematic operation of the oil fields south of the Parapetí River, especially those at Nancorainza, Camatindi, Agua Salada, Macueta, Bermejo, Camiri, and Sanandita. The Argentine YPF (Government Petroleum Bureau) is to approve the development program which YPFB will prepare.

Argentina agrees that, when circumstances make it necessary, it will install a pipeline from Macueta, on the Bolivian side of the border, to one of the stations on the Argentine State Railways between Embarcación and Pocitos. Rates for Bolivian oil carried by the pipeline will be the same as those in force for Argentine oil in the same district.

The amortization and annual interest rates on the money advanced by Argentina will be 5 and 3 percent, respectively, payable in crude oil, fuel oil, Argentine pesos, or any other universal currency. Provisions are made for the repayment of the loans for the various construction projects according to the date of completion of the separate sections of work. In the case of the 15 million-peso loan to stimulate Bolivian oil production, the Bolivian Government en-

gages to deliver at the border, as payment on its commitments and until the total cancellation of the debt, 15 percent of the oil production from Nancorainza, Camatindi, Agua Salada, Macueta, Bermejo, Sanandita, Camiri, and any other fields south of the Parapetí, beginning 12 months from the date on which the Argentine Government advances the first quota of 2 million pesos.

The value of the fuel oil and crude oil thus delivered to Argentina will be fixed by averaging the export f.o.b. prices for such oils in the Texas Gulf Coast, Caribbean, and Peruvian international markets for that year.

The proceeds of the sale of crude oil and fuel oil from the territory served by the Yacuiba-Santa Cruz railway and the proceeds of the operation of the railway itself will serve as guarantee for the money advanced by the Argentine Government and the interest owed on the loan.—E. P. Da S.

Electrical manufacturing company in Mexico

A new company, Industria Eléctrica de Mexico, has been formed by cooperation of American and Mexican interests. It will be the largest privately-owned industrial corporation in Mexico, with an approximate capital of \$15,000,000, of which \$5,000,000 in bonds will be subscribed by Nacional Financiera, S. A., of Mexico, an agency of the Mexican Government.

The share capital of \$10,000,000 will be subscribed in approximately equal proportions in the United States and Mexico.

Estimates and designs for a large, modern electrical manufacturing establishment have been prepared by the Westinghouse Electric International Company, which will also provide training in Westinghouse plants in the United States for certain manufacturing and operating personnel of the new company.

For a period of five years the new com-

pany will have exemption in Mexico from income taxes and certain import duties.

The plant will be built near Mexico City at a cost of approximately \$10,000,000 for the initial unit. Equipment and machinery for the plant, including machine tools, furnaces, cranes, boilers, and electrical installations will be purchased in the United States as needed, when the necessary priorities and export licenses are available.

The new company will manufacture or assemble motors, transformers, generators, switchboard and switchgear, refrigerators, home radios, and household appliances under agreement with Westinghouse for licensing and for technical assistance. The new plant is expected to be in limited production before the end of 1946 and in full production by the end of 1947.

The sale and distribution of imported goods by the new company also will be substantial. It will take over the existing Mexican branch business of Westinghouse Electric International Company and will also act as distributor in Mexico for imported Westinghouse heavy equipment.

Brazilian federal highway fund

In September 1940 the Brazilian government created a highway fund for the states and municipalities, derived from a tax on mineral fuels and lubricants imported into or produced in the country. This fund is distributed to the states, Federal District, and Territory of Acre in proportion to their respective consumption of each product. They can withdraw the funds semi-annually from the Bank of Brazil and are obliged to report on the use of the money to the National Petroleum Council. The following amounts have been collected since 1940 for this highway fund: 1940 (September to December), 29,000,000 cruzeiros; 1941, 122,000,000; 1942, 75,000,000; 1943, 66,000,000; 1944,

83,000,000. (One cruzeiro is worth approximately \$.05.)

After the Americas were at war, the amount of petroleum products imported into Brazil diminished sharply and consequently the taxes collected were also much less than in 1941. In that year the largest allotments went to the following: São Paulo, 47,000,000 cruzeiros; Federal District, 21,000,000; Rio Grande do Sul, 11,000,000; Minas Gerais, 10,000,000; and Rio de Janeiro, 6,000,000.

Argentine-Paraguayan boundary treaty

The Pilcomayo River boundary line between Paraguay and Argentina was fixed definitely in a treaty signed by representatives of both nations in Buenos Aires on June 1, 1945. This agreement covers the last part of the Pilcomayo region where the boundary was still in doubt, the line between Punto Horqueta and Salto Palmar.

The report of the Mixed Commission charged with fixing the boundary pointed out that the problem was not only one of determining a political frontier, but of channeling the flow of the river, giving it a fixed and stable course, utilizing its waters, and obtaining an equitable distribution of them between the two countries. By confining the river to a single channel and regulating its flow by a dam at La Bella Lagoon a large quantity of water would be made available for irrigation, and the section of the Pilcomayo between the Lagoon and the River Paraguay would become navigable. In the present treaty the two governments agree to put into practice the recommendations of the Mixed Commission and carry out a program of public works, including dikes, dams, and dredging, for the purposes outlined above. A permanent Argentine-Paraguayan Pilco-

mayo River Administration and Supervisory Commission will be appointed later to maintain these works.

The treaty also calls for the designation of a Mixed Commission to mark the boundary. This will begin its work within six months after the exchange of ratifications to the present treaty. Within that same period each government agrees, in a protocol signed together with the treaty, to evacuate all territory which by the terms of the treaty passes into the jurisdiction of the other country.

New labor legislation in Venezuela

Amendments to Venezuela's Labor Law promulgated May 4 of this year amplify provisions governing the sharing of company profits with employees, the breaking of labor contracts, and the formation and activities of unions. The law as amended does not apply to white-collar public employees, members of the armed forces, or farm workers. Another law promulgated at the same time regulates the rights and obligations of employers and employees in agriculture.

The Labor Law of July 16, 1936, established the principle that employees should share in the profits of the establishment in which they work, and the way this profit sharing was to be carried out was detailed in a Presidential Decree of December 17, 1938. The present legislation lays down simpler and more uniform measures for profit-sharing. Every company must now distribute among all its workers, in a proportion determined by the salary each one is receiving, at least 10 percent of the liquid profits it has realized during the fiscal year. Out of each worker's share, 75 percent will be paid to him directly and the remaining 25 percent will be deposited in a savings account opened in his name in a banking establishment approved by the federal authorities. These deposits can be withdrawn

only after they reach the sum of 2,000 bolívares (\$597), or after five yearly installments have been paid. Workers will be permitted, however, to take out the sums which are absolutely necessary (*a*) for the purchase of, or a payment on, a house or farm, and (*b*) for maintenance in case of complete and permanent disability. After the death of a worker, his heirs can withdraw the money immediately.

These savings are to be used by the banks to finance the construction of low-cost living quarters and other projects that will promote the well-being, security, and progress of workers. But to use the money for such projects the bank must in every case have the authorization of the Ministry of Labor.

A majority of the workers in any company may request an examination and checking of their employer's profit-sharing accounts and may request the local Labor Inspection Office to name experts who will do the job. An employer convicted of infraction of the profit-sharing provisions of the law will be liable to a fine of 100 to 1000 bolívares.

The amendments re-list what are considered due causes for breaking of contract by the employer and by the employee. Added to the list of due causes for the employer is the revelation by the worker of manufacturing secrets, disclosure of which is against the interests of the employer. On the other hand, any action on the part of the employer or his representatives tantamount to an indirect dismissal is now considered due cause for the worker to break his contract. Any one of the following is counted an indirect dismissal:

1. The employer's demand that the worker do a job manifestly different from the type of work he was contracted to do; or that he do work entailing a change of residence unless the contract so specified, or unless such a change is justified and is not detrimental to the worker.

2. Reduction of wage.
3. Transfer to a lesser position.
4. Arbitrary change of working hours.
5. Any similar alteration of working conditions.

The amended Labor Law includes a statement from the original law, "No one may be obliged or constrained directly or indirectly to belong or not to belong to a union," and further declares: "Workers shall be free from interference . . . or coercion from employers, their agents, or others, in the exercise of their right of association and in the election of the governing boards of legally constituted unions. It cannot be required of any worker or of anyone applying for work that he abstain from belonging to the union of his choice."

An interesting provision of the new legislation creates a special immunity for labor union officers. It states that seven members of the governing board of any legally constituted labor union, while they are holding office and for six months thereafter, cannot be dismissed by their employers except for due cause which has first been recognized as such by the local Labor Inspector. The statutes of each union may specify which seven offices shall carry this immunity. No worker may hold such an office for more than a two-year term.

The Farm Labor Law follows the same general plan as the law covering other kinds of work, and has its own provisions for profit-sharing, union organization, labor contracts, etc., adjusted to the special conditions of rural labor.

We see by the papers that—

- Avenue of the Americas is the new name of Sixth Avenue, *New York*.
- On October 2, 1945, Corning Glass Works announced the purchase of a substantial interest in *Cristalerías de Chile*, the largest glass manufacturer in that country. This is

the third such investment of the Corning Glass Works in South America; the first was made two years ago in *Cristalerías Rigolleau* of Buenos Aires and the second last year in *Vidraria Santa Marina*, São Paulo, Brazil, both the national leaders in the respective field. The American company has in every case acquired only a minority interest; it offers technical assistance and the use of certain patents, such as those for Pyrex glass. Efficient national management of the respective companies is continued.

- The *Peruvian* Airport and Commercial Aviation Corporation was established by Supreme decree of June 25, 1943. It has unlimited powers in its field, and an authorized capital of 10,000,000 gold soles, to be entirely contributed by the Government. It began work August 9, 1944, and has taken over the airports at *Limatambo* (for *Lima*) and *Chachani* (for *Arequipa*), by payment of the value of the property to the concessionaires. These airports are now leased to Pan American-Grace Airways for 10 years. A large new air terminal is under construction at *Limatambo*, which is being increased in size. The two new asphalted strips are each about 6,000 feet long.

- An avenue named in honor of Franklin D. Roosevelt is being cut through an important part of *Lima*, from the *Parque de la República* to the *Parque Universitario*.

- Mexican industrial engineers are working out a scheme for lighting and pre-heating coke ovens in iron and steel foundries with petroleum, which is abundant in the country and which produces rapid heating, instead of with wood, which is slow and so costly, because of the large amounts required, that it makes small-scale foundries impracticable. This new practice would have the further advantage of helping to conserve *Mexico's* forests, which through long use of wood for charcoal are being seriously depleted.

- Shortly before President Prado's term of office expired last July, he opened officially a number of new public works, including two markets in Lima, the main building of National Library, improvements to the Lima-tambo Airport, a Nursing School connected with the Arzobispo Loayza Hospital in Lima, the main building for the new School of Engineering in Lima, buildings at the Military Aviation School at Las Palmas and at the Center of Military Instruction at Chorrillos, and a central First Aid post in Lima, which will serve as a model and control center for the 27 first-aid posts now in operation in *Peru* and for others to be constructed later.

- A million sucres will be spent for construction of airports in eastern *Ecuador*. The money will be made available from the 1945 budget or, if that is impossible, from 1946 appropriations. The President of the Republic has also been authorized to float a loan of 6,500,000 sucres for the improvement and development of national air communications. This loan will be serviced by a surcharge of 20 centavos on air mail. (The current exchange rate on the sucre is \$0.0726.)

- Last July a variant of the route from Lima to Cuzco, *Peru*, was opened to traffic. It goes by way of Nazca, Puquio, and Chalhuanca to Abancay, where it joins the former route through Oroya, Huancayo, and Ayacucho. The new route is 702 miles long, against 727 miles by the former route. Both surmount the Andes, but at different points.

- *Brazil*, whose profitable banana export trade with Europe was interrupted by the war, is beginning to resume shipments, 25,000 bunches having recently been sent from São Paulo to European ports.

- Tax collections in *Peru* rose from 28,000,000 soles in 1940 to 37,000,000 in 1941,

64,000,000 in 1942, 96,000,000 in 1943, and 114,000,000 in 1944. The tax on industrial and commercial profits, which yielded 4,000,000 soles in 1940, amounted to 43,000,000 soles in 1944.

- Grape-growing on a large scale is soon to be under way in Baja California. The Mexican interests involved in the project are using the technical knowledge of Spanish political refugees, trained in grape-growing in Spain. These men have been on the ground for some time making surveys of soil, climate, and growing conditions, and initial tests indicate that the location is ideal for development of an extensive and profitable grape-growing industry.

- In *Venezuela* an association has been organized to protect the natural beauty and resources of the country against the inroads of unchecked cutting of timber, fires set to burn off the fields, and unregulated hunting and fishing.

- The seventh public sewing room in the Federal District of *Mexico* was opened in mid-September. These public sewing rooms, scattered throughout the capital and its suburbs, are a service offered by the Federal District Government to needy women, giving free use of sewing machines and other facilities so that the women may make their families' clothing and do other household sewing at low expense. Attached to each sewing room is a day nursery where free care is provided for young children while the mothers sew.

- It was in 1820, says Robert C. Smith, writing in *Hispania* for August 1945, that Father Peter Babad, of the Society of St. Sulpice of Baltimore, taught the first course in Portuguese at an American university and wrote the first Portuguese grammar published in the *United States*. Father Babad conducted classes in both Spanish and Portuguese at St. Mary's College in that year.

- Since 1942, 127 Latin American journalists have come to the *United States* at the invitation of the Office of Inter-American Affairs. Each group made a six to eight week tour of the country, ending in Washington.
- On September 21, 1945, a bust of the *Uruguayan* national hero Artigas, erected in the Plaza de la Fraternidad Americana at Habana, was unveiled by President Grau San Martín of *Cuba*. The bust was a gift to Cuba by Uruguayan students.
- An intensive 15-week course in English for foreign students of science and engineering is being successfully given by Professor H. M. Crain at the Colorado School of Mines. The Rockefeller Foundation has made a small grant to support research and provide equipment. Throughout the course, but especially at first, much use is made of projections of objects on a screen, accompanied by their English names and phonetic equivalents. Recordings are also utilized; students try to imitate these and check their own recordings with the originals. For five days a week the students spend eight hours a day in the language classes; on Saturdays they make trips to industrial plants and other places of scientific and engineering interest. Special emphasis is placed on technical vocabulary, and at the end of the course students are able to begin their university work practically on a par with Americans.
- The first course for Cuban archivists, under the auspices of the Governing Board of the Archives of *Cuba*, was opened early this year. Captain Joaquín Llaverías, Director of the National Archives, and other specialists lecture to the students.
- *Guatemala* has offered *Panama* several fellowships for Panamanian students in the School of Medicine of the University of Guatemala, and a fellowship in each one of the other Schools of the University.
- Sra. Celia P. de Arosemena, librarian at the Manuel Amador Guerrero School Center, is the first *Panamanian* woman to be named a foreign correspondent for any news service or publication. She has been appointed Panama correspondent for the Worldover News Service in New York City.
- Among the especially applauded numbers of the A Capella chorus directed in *Montevideo* by Nilda Muller are negro spirituals.

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